

THE LEADER

SATURDAY ANALYST;

A REVIEW AND RECORD OF POLITICAL, LITERARY, ARTISTIC, AND SOCIAL EVENTS.

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4 Sauce Ladles	11 at 8 0 4 8 0
4 Salt Spoons, gilt bowls	1 19 0
1 Mustard Spoon, ditto	0 10 0
1 Fish Slice	3 0 0
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WHO KILLED REFORM?

AN obliging nation is once more invited to weep for Lord JOHN RUSSELL, who has had to perform the melancholy task of burying another Reform Bill, and of casting additional doubt and contempt on the conduct and good faith of public men. For the Reform Bill itself, we imagine no one will put on crape. It was a foolish, sham, delusive measure, strengthened by no principle and enlightened by no expediency, and it was the offspring of a sectional agitation, that was neither honest nor wise. In the late JOSEPH HUME the working classes had a sincere friend, who really did desire their admission into Parliament; and the appeals for popular support made during his lifetime would have proved successful had not Mr. BRIGHT and his Manchester adherents succeeded in splitting up the Liberal party, and rolling back the tide of political progress, which then ran fast and strong. In 1851, Mr. BRIGHT and his friends propounded a scheme in their Free Trade Hall, which differed from that of Mr. HUME sufficiently to create a division; and, when that object was accomplished, they abandoned their offspring with less compunction than Lord JOHN RUSSELL has just displayed. During the interval, peace-at-any-price notions and the direct-taxation hobby were constantly thrust forward as integral portions of any scheme for reform; and the Conservative party gained an immense accession of strength from the un-English conduct of the Manchester School during the Russian war, and also during the unhappy troubles that arose in our Eastern possessions. The Reform spirit was nearly extinguished by these circumstances, when Mr. SAMUEL MORLEY and a few other civic admirers of Mr. BRIGHT got up what they were pleased to term a Reform Committee. This body, for reasons it has never ventured to explain, declined the task of agitating the country, but summoned a number of M.P.'s together, who formally elected Mr. BRIGHT as their leader, and commissioned him to prepare a Reform Bill. The Bill was drawn up in due time, and was well calculated to create a host of enemies and secure no friends. All parties know that the pretended compact between the hon. member for Birmingham and the less noisy individuals constituting the body and tail of the Liberal party, was a mere piece of humbug, and probably not one of those who joined in the request that Mr. BRIGHT should draw up a Bill had the slightest intention of advocating its acceptance.

By degrees the country got sick of Lord PALMERSTON's jaunty tricks, and even Liberals welcomed a Tory Government, not from any belief in its merits, but as a pleasant change from the rule of a Premier who treated everybody with supercilious impertinence, and attempted to degrade his country by Conspiracy Bills, and prosecutions undertaken at the command of a foreign despot. In its turn Toryism suffered an eclipse, and when Lord DERBY's rickety Cabinet was on the point of falling to pieces, the whole *posse* of pseudo-Liberals headed by the member for Birmingham, had an interview with Lord PALMERSTON, who made them no definite promises for the future, but melodramatically told them to look at the past. A so-called Liberal Cabinet was patched up, and the Manchester School were bought over by the admission of Mr. MILNER GIBSON, and by promises that Mr. GLADSTONE would bring forth a budget highly favourable to the interests of the manufacturers of the North. Under these circumstances, the Reform Light or Bill of Mr. BRIGHT was of course hidden under a bushel, and the hon. gentleman was ready to accept anything the Ministry chose to propose. It was easy to make a few eloquent speeches, proving that the Cabinet scheme would leave nearly all the excluded operatives precisely where they were—outside the door of the Constitution; but the member for Birmingham was surely the "man of the people," for who but a real democrat would fling so many rhetorical rotten eggs at the hereditary branch of the Legislature, or declaim so loudly against the military and naval pickings of the Peers?

A Reform agitation which did not even seek to agitate, which enshrined no moral principle, and which would have called out, "Perish England, so that the cotton-trade flourish," quite as readily as its chief did call out "Perish Savoy, so that the peace of Europe be maintained," could not possibly gain strength; but it did compromise the position of all its pretended friends. Mr. GLADSTONE's budget did not meet the praises it deserved, in spite of its needless complications, simply because the CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER was represented as a mere agent of the Manchester School. The French Treaty became unjustly unpopular because its chief friends belonged to that un-English party; the Lords kicked out the Paper Duties Repeal, and overstepped the limits of the constitution, because they thought they were defending England against Mr. BRIGHT; and, finally, Lord JOHN RUSSELL, with the approbation of the Manchester School, threw over his Reform Bill in obedience to a Parliament which he ought to have defied.

Mr. BRIGHT said he should not attack the Government for conduct arising out of difficulties for which they were not "entirely responsible;" and he was, perhaps, right, for he was to the full as responsible for those difficulties as any one else. We cannot, however, on this ground exonerate the Ministers;—they might have introduced their Bill a month earlier, and might have held out to the Legislature the alternative of sitting a month later, or suffering dissolution in the event of a refractoriness that could not be overcome. The opponents of Reform have all along reckoned upon the well-known hostility of Lord PALMERSTON to beneficial electoral change; and we should not in June have found 250 M.P.'s voting for indefinite postponement, and seen ourselves confronted with sixty or seventy amendments, if the House of Commons had contained, in the Cabinet or out of it, even one dozen intelligent men who were honest and sincere in their demand for electoral reform.

Lord JOHN RUSSELL makes the China war and the great fortification job pretexts for abandoning his scheme; but not for one moment since the disastrous blunder of Mr. BRUCE and Admiral HOPE, has there been the slightest prospect of an amicable settlement with the Chinese, and the fortification schemes would not be elevated into importance by any Government that deserved the confidence of the people. No prudent lover of his country can do other than deplore the close of a session under circumstances productive of so much distrust. The Tories have excited alarm by an obvious desire to go back; the Whigs have excited alarm by an equally obvious determination not to move forward. No independent Liberals have formed an English party, and the aggression of the Lords has brought together a Committee, led by Mr. BRIGHT, which represents some ten or twelve millions of property, invested chiefly in the cotton trade, and whose owners entertain views of home and foreign policy to which the country is not prepared to assent. Mr. HORSMAN was not correct when he stated that most of the nation had discountenanced the agitation for Reform, for, with the exception of that carried on by Mr. JOSEPH COWEN and the Northern Reform Union, there has been no agitation to discountenance. The repeated failures of Cabinets and Parliaments to deal with the question after it has been pompously brought forward in the QUEEN's speech, must have their effect in rendering the continuance of the present state of things impossible; and the tendency of provisions to reach famine prices will not make manufacturers and tradesmen more Conservative, or enable the working classes to bear with patience the insult and outrage to which they have been subjected, by speakers who have preferred vituperation to truth.

The country has ample materials before it for forming a sound judgment. The existing House of Commons is the lowest in public estimation, and the poorest in public spirit that can be remembered. Some change must take place, were it for no higher reason than the convenience of material interests which are deplorably affected by an uncertain Legislature; and the people have to choose between commencing an agitation for a wide and substantial improvement of our electoral system, such as would restore to the House of Commons the function of representing opinion, or of exhuming a narrow scheme like that proposed by Lord JOHN RUSSELL and advocated by Mr. BRIGHT, which would have the effect of subordinating all classes of the community to the compact organisation and selfish interests of the Manchester School. For this session nothing can be done in Parliament, for the Ministers are right in believing that its members would not sacrifice a little grouse and partridge shooting for the benefit of their country, and national interests must be shelved the very moment that any form of game is legally of age. Recent meetings on the usurpation of the Lords have proved, beyond a doubt, that the people are ready to respond to agitation, and those who are the first in the field will be the earliest possessors of power.

THE POTENTATES AT BADEN.

THE holders of indigo, the purveyors of tea, coffee, and tallow, the jobbers in stocks, the spinners of cotton, and the manufacturers of cloth, would each and all pay a good round sum to know what the Emperor NAPOLEON will confabulate with the German Princes at Baden. Italy waits the result with anxiety, and the dwellers on the "castled Rhine" look upon the meeting as a step towards, or a step away from, the pet project of readjusting the boundaries of France by another addition of territory, which Europe could not view with calm and equal eyes.

According to the official programme, the elect of seven millions only desires to give the world assurances of peace—which was precisely the object of certain proceedings immediately before the opening of the Italian campaign. What the present interchange of Napoleonic and Prussian ideas

will lead to, is hard enough to guess; but it is the German potentates who are the real arbiters of the occasion, and their conduct will decide whether the Rhine is to be imperilled by an assault of arms. The Italian question is once more fairly afloat, and the German princes must make up their minds, that if they support Austria on the absurd pretence that the Rhine must be defended on the Mincio, they will incur the foolish responsibility of defending the Mincio on the Rhine.

Looking to the state of Germany, it is probable that the visit of the French EMPEROR will aggravate the jealousies and augment the difficulties of the various petty princes. If he convinces Prussia, Bavaria will go the other way; while if Prussia hesitates, Hanover will offer to move. In appearance, everything will be made as smooth as possible; as spring, not summer, is the diplomatic season for war's alarms, and GARIBALDI will afford enough occupation for the autumn and winter months. The obvious interest of the German people is, that their rulers should frankly accept the new conditions of Italy, and wait for no leading before they recognise the right of the Sicilians or Neapolitans to throw off the yoke of the BOURBONS, and annex their country to the Sardinian Crown. Such a course would break them from Austria, who now looks on without meddling, not from improved morals, but from remembrance of defeat; and it would place them right with Europe, and with that liberal party in France which, for his own safety, LOUIS NAPOLEON must consult. The danger to Germany and to Europe arises from permitting the Emperor of the FRENCH to be the only potentate who exhibits an active sympathy for oppressed nationalities. Whatever kings and cabinets may think, every nation would have been proud of victories like Magenta and Solferino, which called a long-suffering people into the full vigour of national life; and while Austria holds the Quadrangle, tortures Venetia, and reigns by usurpation in Hungary, the French Empire can have another batch of victories that the world will applaud, whenever it becomes convenient to "fight for an idea," and secure fresh territory under so convenient a pretence.

The opinion of political circles in Turin is that the French Government will not meddle unfairly with GARIBALDI's plans, but leave the patriot soldier and his partisans to work their will if they can, in Sicily, and on the mainland. Lord PALMERSTON stated on Tuesday that there was good reason for believing that the French Government had flatly refused "to guarantee the integrity of the Two Sicilies;" and with reference to the special mission which King BOMBA II. has sent to London and Paris, his lordship made some very plain and strong remarks, which ought to be followed by equally bold and decisive action. The words were, "It is a misfortune of Governments like those of Rome and Naples, that when, by the cruelties and atrocities committed under their authority, their subjects have been driven to desperation, and have revolted, that they appeal to old and friendly Powers for assistance to remove the authors of those revolutions. These Governments forget that they themselves are the real and original authors of the revolt, and that if their prayer was granted the first and necessary step would have been their own removal." In this sense GARIBALDI will, we have no doubt, "grant their prayer" if his operations meet with no impediment at the hands of England or France, and nothing could aid him more effectually than an early and positive promise to recognise the decision to which the people of the Two Sicilies may come, and to repudiate all attempts at setting up a dynasty for them, as was most mischievously done in the case of Greece. We may imagine the Prince of PRUSSIA will discuss all these questions with his Imperial visitor, and his decision will go far to determine whether his Government is to lead the opinion of Germany, and be a rallying point for liberal ideas, or whether it will continue to halt painfully between old things and new, until war and revolution force it into a popular groove. The first German power that has the courage to repudiate the absurd fallacy that Austria benefits German interests by holding a hostile possession of Italian soil, will render an incalculable benefit to the "Fatherland." The balance of territories is nothing when compared with the balance of ideas, and Prussia would rise at once to a commanding position if she would join England in saying that every question of war or peace and change of dynasties should be decided by considering its tendency to advance political liberty, and rescue humanity from the curse of priestcraft. Freedom and Protestantism, Constitutional Government and the absolute right of private judgment in religious affairs, these ought to be the rallying cry of all honest liberal Governments; and it should not be possible for a Protestant Government, for any pretext or for any cause, to be the support of a papal tyranny, nor for a constitutional Government to wage any war or exert any influence on behalf of a despotic power. There

may be reasons why one despotism should be prevented from swallowing up another despotism, but no alliance should be tolerated, which, for the sake of maintaining a balance of power, condemns any portion of Europe to suffer under a combination of absolutist and priestly misrule. Let Prussia fortify the Rhine with free principles, and no hostile bayonets will prevail. Protestantism and Constitutionalism do not advance in Europe in proportion to population, because Protestant and Constitutional States have preferred balancing wrongs to maintaining rights. The great mind of ELIZABETH saw the folly of this course; but it has prevailed down to the last despatch, in which the English Government urged the King of SARDINIA not to encourage GARIBALDI's expedition. When Statesmen grow wiser, they will see that the right and the expedient are not so wide apart, and that the cheapest as well as the most honest conduct is to avow sympathy with every just cause.

AMERICAN POLITICS.

THE Republicans have, as we anticipated in our last reference to American politics, rejected the claims of Mr. SEWARD, the great leader and founder of their party, to the Presidency, and nominated at the Chicago Convention a gentleman who, if not exactly an obscurity, was but little known to the Union, and quite unknown in Europe. The promptitude and unanimity with which this selection of Mr. LINCOLN was effected, contrasts strikingly with the discord which prevailed amongst the Democrats at Charleston, and augurs well for the success of the party in the contest now fairly begun. Their chances of success are also greatly improved by the choice itself. Mr. SEWARD has played too prominent a part in American politics to have escaped making many foes amongst the members of a party which, like the Republican, is made up of the fragments of parties now exploded. He labours, therefore, under a greater disadvantage than that which ordinarily attaches to American statesmen of position; but the special obstacle in his way was the fact that the party itself has been compelled to modify its views, and adopt a more temperate and practical programme. Its managers have discovered that the violent "abolitionism" which excites the rapturous applause of Maine or Massachusetts, disgusts the mass of voters in the Central States, whose suffrages they must obtain to carry the election. Mr. SEWARD has not himself any objection to this qualification of the party programme; and, indeed, the great speech he made some three months ago in the Senate was the first intimation of it; but, unfortunately, he has, at dates not very distant, spoken in very extreme terms, and some two or three of his expressions have become current phrases. He is therefore associated in the public mind with violent views, and his candidature would have repelled the doubtful voters it is essential to secure. The object of a party is, of course, power; and American parties never suffer any sentimentalism to stand in the way of getting it. Mr. SEWARD was therefore sacrificed without scruple, and his only consolation will be, that the nominee for whom he has been put aside is not one of the rivals who have been intriguing against him.

But if the rejection of Mr. SEWARD was a negative advantage to the Republicans, saving them from pretty certain defeat, the nomination of Mr. LINCOLN is a positive one, ensuring at least one doubtful state, and strengthening the cause generally with the mass of the people. The new candidate is a self-made man, always a great recommendation to a people of self-made men. Every American will feel a sympathy with LINCOLN. He will himself have experienced the same trials, and to a certain extent have gained the same victory over them. Mr. LINCOLN's career is not an extraordinary one for an American statesman. He was a poor lad, who worked hard at several of the trades to which an American readily turns his hand; kept a grocery store, as some people say; worked at a whisky still, as he tells us himself—his probable opponent in the Presidential contest, Mr. DOUGLAS, being at the same time a school teacher in the same locality—worked his way on until he became a member of the State legislature, stayed there a few years, when he met his old acquaintance DOUGLAS, and then, in some party revolution, was lost sight of as a politician for some ten years. He then served in Congress about two years—his only experience as a Federal Statesman—subsided again into private life, and came out again in 1858, when he contested the senatorship of Illinois with Mr. DOUGLAS, and first let the Union know the metal of which he was made. He is a capital stump speaker and a good storyteller, no poor qualifications in the United States. But a good deal of his popularity is likely to rest upon a portrait Mr. DOUGLAS drew of him in their Illinois contest. According to this description, Mr. LINCOLN in his early days could beat any of the boys at wrestling or running, pitching or tossing; could "run" more liquor than all the boys of the town together, and

was generally selected for his admirable impartiality to preside at horse races and fist fights. With these qualifications "old ABEL LINCOLN," as he is called, will probably carry all the Western States. A man with no other recommendation than his power of "ruining" liquor would certainly stand no chance of high office even in America; but when a party adopts as its champion a politician, who, in addition to political ability and character, can do the things the people like to do themselves, better than they can, he is sure to win an enthusiastic welcome. The people of the United States like a hearty jovial statesman, who enjoys their enjoyments and understands their difficulties: and it is much the same in this country. LORD PALMERSTON certainly does not enjoy any great reputation for "ruining" liquor, but he has the credit of being a hearty man, taking an interest in English sports, and he owes his popularity to that reputation and to his perennial liveliness, much more than to his "spirited foreign policy."

The Republicans have a good start, and a good candidate. They have a platform equally calculated to conciliate the sympathy of the people whose votes they want, combining, as it does, moderation on the Slavery question with rampant Protectionism, and only some great blunder of their own, some intestine squabble fomented by slighted aspirants to the Presidency, or some speedy termination of the divisions of their opponents, can deprive them of the victory. At present, the discord in the Democratic ranks is as fierce as ever. The friends of Mr. DOUGLAS insist as strongly upon his nomination, and the adoption on the platform of his doctrine of "squatter sovereignty," or at least of leaving the whole question open. The extreme South, and the personal friends of Mr. BUCHANAN, are just as determined to prevent the nomination of Mr. DOUGLAS, and to have the new doctrine which the South has lately taken up, that Congress is bound to protect Slavery in the territories, recognised as the party creed. The adjourned Convention meets at Baltimore on the 18th, and unless by some wonderful management a spirit of unity and concession can be infused into its councils, its sittings will be as fruitless as those held at Charleston, and 1860 will witness the complete disruption and discomfiture of the great Democratic party which, but a short time since, promised itself a long lease of office, and relying upon that tenure grossly abused its power.

LAW AND LABOUR.

A CASE recently decided by Mr. CORRIE places the relation of the law-making and law-expounding class and the working men in a very striking if not novel point of view. Three workmen were charged with unlawfully using threats and intimidation to force a builder named PHILIP ANLEY to limit the number and description of his workmen contrary to the statute, &c., &c. It appeared from the evidence that Mr. ANLEY had in his employment two men who had signed the document which produced so much ill-will and pecuniary loss to all parties concerned in the unhappy builders' strike. The defendants did not choose to work with men who had, as they thought, betrayed the interests of their order by signing the objectionable declaration, and they accordingly gave Mr. ANLEY notice that they would not work for him unless these men were discharged. Thus the only "threat" used was that of leaving an employment they did not like; and after carrying it into effect it appears that they and their friends endeavoured to persuade other workmen not to serve Mr. ANLEY while the document men remained. Mr. CORRIE, after citing certain precedents, decided that expressing a determination to leave work was a "threat" to "force" the master to limit the description of his workmen; and he went further than this, by declaring that the masters' document simply bound the men to abstain from doing that which was illegal, although, in point of fact, it is as much directed against interference by arguments as against interference by force. The legality of Mr. CORRIE's decision will, it appears, be disputed, but there is much more in the question than the dry technicalities of an oppressive law; and however much the ill-feeling between masters and men may be regretted, it is obvious that it can only be increased by such prosecutions and such decisions, which go further to violate the principles of justice than any errors committed by the men. We are aware of the inconvenience that capitalists suffer through the action of trade combinations, but all that either party ought to claim from the State is protection from actual violence or force; and their quarrels, thus reduced to limits compatible with public order, should be solved entirely by moral means. Mr. CORRIE's law may be fortified by an ample array of decisions in a similar spirit, but the common sense and common feeling of justice entertained by mankind are outraged when the simple expression of a determination to leave an employment is held to be threatening the employment of force.

We are not arguing on behalf of the course taken by the Society's men. We think refusals to work with non-society's men, ordinarily, if not under all circumstances, amount to an unjust assault upon the rights of the men so persecuted; but no wrong on the part of the employed can be morally adjusted by a similar wrong on the part of the employers; and a constant enforcement of the law as laid down by Mr. CORRIE—whose sympathies seem to be morbidly one-sided in favour of the capitalists, could not procure one particle of safety or convenience for the masters, but would simply change for the worse the tactics of the men. If the latter in this case had left without giving any reason it is probable that no proceedings would have been taken against them; although by the employment of spies the masters might have picked up enough scraps of conversation to have carried out Mr. CORRIE's suggestion of an indictment for conspiracy. In domestic life the butler gives warning that he will not live with the cook, and the housemaid vows not to rub any more tables unless the footman is discharged. In higher life a Chancellor of the Exchequer declares he will not serve her Majesty the QUEEN unless the First Lord of the Treasury can be persuaded to resign; and throughout society people choose their associates without fear of Mr. CORRIE and a barbarous law. Why should the workman be an exception to the enjoyment of this natural liberty, and why should the force of the State be arrayed against him in this preposterous manner? The workman's answer is obvious. He would say, the capitalists make the laws for their own interests, and nominate expounders upon whom they think they can rely, and the workman must submit till his time comes. If any one were to make a morning or an evening's tour through regions where the working classes congregate, he would find that such an intervention as that of which Mr. CORRIE was the instrument has done more to widen the breach between labour and capital than the most inflammatory speeches of trades union leaders. The workmen know that neither the middle class nor the aristocracy would tolerate the application of such a law to their own order, and that its vengeance only falls upon them because the absence of political combination and its attendant power has left them defenceless and weak.

The claims and counter claims of labour and capital can only be adjusted by argument, by experience, by the spread of information, and by the introduction of something like Christian principles in the social relations of rich and poor. A few days ago, the master builders declined to discuss the eight or ten hours' question with the delegates of the men, and now they encourage one of their number to prosecute and obtain the conviction of two poor fellows, who will be regarded as martyrs by their class. How would Mr. ANLEY or any other master builder like to be committed to prison with hard labour, for refusing to employ, or recommending another master not to employ, members of the Union? And yet, if justice were even-handed and not iniquitously blind, they would have to take their share of penalties with the men. So long as capitalists are enabled to resort to force, too many of them will neglect the social and Christian duty of cultivating a good understanding with the men. If they complain that the latter do not understand political economy or social science, let them combine to spread a knowledge of such subjects. If they consider the demands of the men unreasonable, let them be ready again and again to argue and discuss, and when practicable to submit the matters in dispute to the test of a fair and actual experiment. If the money fooled away by the men in the late strike would have sufficed to establish half-a-dozen co-operative firms, on the other hand the money fooled away by the masters would have built dozens of reading-rooms and libraries, established schools, and replaced the mischievous pothouse by the civilizing influence of the workmen's club. There is no doubt wrong on both sides, but the richer and better-informed capitalist is assuredly the most to blame. If the masters' method of tyrannical law and obsequious police magistrate could succeed, the working class must be demoralized; and on the other hand, if the law did not punish the Unionists for real offences against the peace, confusion would result. On both sides let force be discarded—willingly if possible, compulsorily if not; but let no friend of human progress regret that capital cannot sleep easily while labour is socially depressed. Working for wages ought not to sink a man in the social scale, and it is a melancholy proof of real degradation and snobbishness when an employer thinks himself too grand to argue with his men. We suspect that the fear of argument too often arises from the consciousness of ignorance, but the country will come to no harm from compelling capital to buy a little polite learning; and it would be no damage to the community, if, in addition to so many thousand pounds, a manufacturing firm found it necessary to its success to provide so much knowledge of social science and so much Christian charity as part of its stock in trade. We could name large firms who never quarrel with their men,

simply because they do not forget that they are human beings of like passions with themselves, and quite as much entitled to gentlemanly treatment as the highest persons in the land. The capitalists most ready to quarrel are the most ignorant and the most neglectful of social duties. They look upon human labour like bricks or timber, as a commodity to be purchased, and when the man refuses to be a chattel, they think themselves aggrieved. The conduct of the angry workman may not be reasonable, and his ostensible ground of quarrel often unjust, but no employment of force will generate that good understanding that can only come from obeying Christian principles as well as trade laws; and if union men decline to work with non-unionists, the masters should appeal to reason, and make provisional arrangements, by selecting servants from the class willing to submit to their terms. If their statement be true that the societies are tyrannical, there must be plenty of workmen who will be glad to join them. If, on the other hand, the workmen as a rule do not consider the Society's regulations hostile to the general interests of their order, then the masters have been deceiving the public by their statements, and must seek to influence opinion by more legitimate methods than violence and abuse.

HISTORY AND PRINCIPLES OF PACKET CONTRACTS.

THE subject of mail contracts, and the delinquencies of public officers, to which we adverted last week, requires further elucidation. Some of us remember, and most of us are aware, that the Ocean packet-service was formerly carried on from Harwich, Calais, and Falmouth by cutters and brigs, which formed a part of our naval establishment. At Falmouth there was a Commodore of the packet-service, and he had under his orders some dozen of small brigs, denominated coffins, from their bad habit of sinking with mails and passengers, instead of carrying them to their destination: and there were about four still smaller vessels at each of the other ports. There were, if we recollect right, no Royal mail-packets to the United States. The many passenger-ships that passed to and fro conveyed the mails. Miserable was the accommodation the Royal packets afforded, and dire were the complaints of passengers tossed about for an uncertain period on the ocean.

The first considerable improvement was made by the London Steam Navigation Company. It began to carry passengers regularly to and fro between London and Hamburg and Rotterdam, and soon took away from the Harwich mail-packets all the passengers. The mails for the North were then sent by this company's vessels, which continued till the extension of railways from Calais and Ostend to the North made it more expeditious to send all letters by the shortest sea-voyage, to meet the system of continental railroads. Why the same plan was not extended from communicating with the continent of Europe to communicating with America, and the transmission, by rail and otherwise, from the point of arrival there, by the shortest sea-voyage through a greater part of that continent, and to all the contiguous islands, we are not aware. The Treasury preferred a costly system of steam-packets, even where it had none before, to convey mails by three or four routes across the ocean to the United States, the West Indies, and South America. The most important fact in this brief history is the establishment of steam-packets carrying passengers to the Continent, and the complete supersession by them of the Government mail-packets that formerly ran from Harwich. It is almost unnecessary to add, that that acceleration of communication between distant countries was entirely brought about by private interest, and likely to be very successful, wherever there are many passengers, as between Europe and America. We are only now beginning to learn, as we never can learn till after we have ascertained how our officials have perverted a system which began in private interest, and which private interest continually tends to improve, into a contrivance for fleecing the tax-paying people.

In 1838, the Great Western, a steamer of 1,200 tons, designed for the purpose, completed her passage from Bristol to New York in fifteen and a half days, and returned from New York to Bristol in thirteen and a quarter days. The company which despatched her has the merit of first demonstrating the practicability of performing steam voyages across the ocean quickly, regularly, and punctually. Private enterprise actually did the work, and continued to do it, *without Government aid*. In 1839, the Government, which had declined in 1838 to contract with the Great Western Company to carry the mails to America, contracted with an individual (Mr. CUNARD) to convey mails to Halifax once a fortnight for £50,000 a-year. This contract was soon enlarged, and extended, till it gradually attained the gigantic dimensions of a subsidy of £176,340 a year for carrying letters between England and North America. The

company to which the Great Western belonged necessarily failed in competition with a company so largely subsidised by the Government, though experience has proved that the immense passenger traffic between Liverpool and the United States can employ and remunerate several companies.

In 1839, also, when the success of the Great Western had stimulated both enterprise and cupidity, "a number of gentlemen interested in the West Indies,"—amongst them, probably, some staunch Whigs—"offered to provide steamers for keeping up a communication with that part of the world for £240,000 a year," and this offer was agreed to by Government without inviting tenders by advertisement. The contract was entered into for ten years. From that time to this the company then formed has continued to receive a quarter of a million of the public money yearly. It now receives, having extended its services, £268,500 for carrying mails which might be much more advantageously sent through the United States; and from their southern post on the Gulf of Mexico distributed with ease and economy over all the West India islands. The possibility of effecting an improvement of this kind and of many other kinds was shut out from the day that the offer of these gentlemen to accept £240,000 of the public money per annum was agreed to by the servants of the public. Following this precedent exactly, Mr. LEVER made his offer, and Lord DERRY accepted it. In entering into their agreement in 1858, they followed very closely the Whig precedent established by Sir C. WOOD in 1839.

To officials it is nothing that this scheme of "blind contracts," to last for a series of years, has been denounced in Parliament; nothing that it was demonstrated that improvements in steam navigation made such contracts unnecessarily onerous for the country and very advantageous to contractors; nothing that committees have reported, that where there is effective competition, as there is to America, it is not necessary to subsidise contractors; nothing that two of the original pretexts for paying such subsidies—viz., that these packets should "be made available as armed vessels in case of war," and that British liners must be maintained in competition with the United States—have been given up, for the United States' subsidised line has ceased, and the construction of various iron-plated steamers, &c. with all the organised preparations for maritime warfare has rendered paddle-wheel packets nearly useless in such a contest; and nothing that rails now extend from Portland to Georgia, and make it as unnecessary to send great mail packets to the West Indies and South America with letters, as to send them to Hamburg and Bordeaux.

In spite of all the altered circumstances, the precedent of giving gentlemen interested in the West Indies £240,000 a-year to carry letters thither, set by Sir CHARLES WOOD in 1839, was closely followed in 1857, in the attempt to establish an Australian mail, and in 1858, when the denounced LEVER-Galway contract was completed. To follow precedents is the rule of official life, the justification of official acts; and so Sir CHARLES WOOD's precedent, properly followed by his successors, now lands the country in an annual expense of £1,000,000 a-year, at the option of the Secretary of the Treasury. The whole contrivance seems to us a financial juggle for the benefit of officials and contractors.

Experience had, before 1839, proved beyond all contradiction that bounties of all kinds for the encouragement of enterprise were mischievous. Parliament, though very slow in recognising new truths, had accepted this; and bounties generally, even on baking sugar and curing herrings, had been given up. Bounties on the cultivation of the soil were indeed continued, but were reprobated as a scandalous injustice. After all this expense and this practice, the present Sir CHARLES WOOD, then an Admiralty official, with the sanction of the Treasury, with which the Admiralty must then have acted in concert, began, in 1839, to give enormous bounties for the encouragement of steam navigation. It needed none. That was the professed object of the subsidies. They might as well have been bestowed on railways, but for them there was no foreign competition. The subsidies were to stifle competition on the old anti-social policy, by keeping the Americans off the line.

At that time the town interest—generally the reforming interest—predominated in Parliament, and so the false principle which put money into the pockets of all connected with steam vessels was not reprobated. The landowners and agriculturists knew nothing about the matter, and a system of bounties for the encouragement of steam navigation was established, to the scandal of the commercial conscience, as the rule of modern policy.

The money is expended without any control. Parliament cannot possibly audit the Treasury accounts. The Audit Board which exists for the purpose, does its duty when it ascertains that the money voted for these bounties goes, at least nominally, into

the hands of the contractors. The Board sees the receipts, and that is the sole audit of this vast expenditure, and at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. WYNDHAM once described our officials as no more likely to appropriate the public money than to steal a diamond snuff-box; and, relying on such high-fetched integrity, Parliament votes the public money by millions into their keeping. Latterly, however, confidence has been so much abused—men in high stations have shown themselves so regardless even of oaths, so utterly indifferent as to promises, so devoid of that perfect frankness which encourages trust, so ready to trim and to compromise—that the suspicion will glance over the public mind that amongst some of the cashiers of the nation PULLINGERS and REDPATHS may possibly be found. If this should ever happen, we shall probably find that the national checks are as inefficient to guard against fraud as were those of the Union Bank. Official men avowedly profess to deal with the public money at their discretion, and they are without control. Men who, from ignorance or wilful neglect, send troops to the Crimea without providing for their subsistence, men who waste millions year after year on building ships to rot or be pulled to pieces, and obstinately refuse to pay just wages for seamen's labour, may possibly have amongst them PULLINGERS and REDPATHS. For the honest appropriation of public money, the fancied high integrity of public men is no longer a sufficient guarantee.

If amongst them official etiquette, which has lately been so much insisted on, were not held more sacred than justice to the taxpayers, why did not the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Sir G. C. LEWIS) and the Secretary of the Treasury (Mr. WILSON), who went out of office in March, 1858, and who must have been familiar—or, at least, ought to have been—with all the reasons which then made the renewal of CUNARD's contract highly unjust and grossly impolitic, both as regards Canada and all general principles, denounce the men who immediately on taking office renewed that contract? They still remained members of Parliament, though not of the Government, and as such it was their duty to impeach—a proceeding by political opponents which the Committee has strongly reprobated. Of what good is an Opposition if not to keep the Ministers right? The ignorance of the Tory Secretary, Mr. G. A. HAMILTON, could be no excuse for such a flagrant wrong. As the ex-officials did not take this honest course, they must permit us to say that their silence, and their not leaving full information in their records for the new Secretary, looks very much like a collusion between the ins and outs to have a pretext for perpetrating a gross job. We will here, having expressed this opinion, leave the matter to the judgment of the public, who cannot like to be cozened by boasting professions of a very unnatural high-mindedness in public men. We must remark, however, with reference to etiquette, that the originator of the plan of giving bounties to "gentlemen interested in the West Indies" to carry mails, Sir CHARLES WOOD, and the SECRETARY of the TREASURY, who much extended the system, and who ought to—but did not—denounce the wrong done by his successor—both being great free-traders—are the persons most highly offended by Sir CHARLES TREVELYAN's breach of etiquette in denouncing extravagance and increase of taxation at Calcutta. Sir CHARLES was used in Europe by his superiors to inform Mr. INMAN, on November 9, 1859, in the name of the Treasury, contrary to fact, that "the Board, when about to establish a new postal service, was in the practice of inviting tenders by public advertisements;" and probably the breach of etiquette of which he has now been guilty, and at which other officials are so outrageously wroth, was of that species which proverbially leads to honest men recovering their own.

THE GREAT EASTERN.

THE Great Eastern is announced to start on her first voyage to-day, and this time there seems a fair prospect that the promise of the announcement will be kept. "Our own correspondents" have given in detail all the incidents of her fourth trial trip, and as during that twenty-four hours' exposure to wind and waves no material defect was discovered, we may venture to assume that the big ship will take her adventurous passengers across the Atlantic in about the time which would be occupied by one of the Cunard vessels. More than this nobody now hopes. The brilliant promises of a speed which would put a girdle round the earth in some six months have all vanished, and with them the hope that the ship will ever repay the immense sums expended upon her. The miracle of size, speed, and economical arrangement, upon which so many eloquent prognostications of human progress have been based, has at present little claim to admiration beyond the tribute due to her gigantic proportions; and her owners appear to base their hopes of recouping their outlay upon exhibiting her as a specimen of

monstrosity to the sight-seers of the Old and New Worlds. That curiosity satisfied, what can she be employed for except to carry an army to India, or run down a French fleet?

The story of the Great Eastern is a singularly comprehensive tale of the strength and weakness of man, his presumption and his power, his feebleness and his failure, his genius and his fortitude, his folly and his meanness. It is a tragedy and a comedy. We mourn over the lives the monster has cost, and the misery it has spread. The tale of victims is a long one: the man of genius who imagined the mighty vessel, and fell a victim to his devotion to the task of realizing his great conception; the gallant sailor who carried her safely through the difficulties which beset her infant fortunes; and the rank and file of the great army of workers, whose lives she demanded on the Thames and on the Dorset coast. Turn to the other side, and what food for laughter in the petty squabbles, the grand airs, the baits for constituencies, the noisy meetings of shareholders, and their grave charges of mismanagement or worse, all settled by a Pickwickian interpretation.

The whole country took an interest in the fortunes of the Great Eastern. Every man assumed some credit to himself, as an Englishman, for her construction, and takes shame, proportioned to that pride, in her failures. We crowed too much over her. We hallooed before we were out of the wood—calculated her achievements before she was launched—and, despite the warning then given, still thought her success a matter of certainty, until the explosion let out the secret of her many imperfections. The next ship we build of the same size, we shall make much less noise about, and build much better. Some time, however, will elapse before such a monster is again undertaken. The Great Eastern is a warning against attempting too gigantic strides—a significant hint to proceed by safe degrees, instead of trying perilous flights. As two and two do not always make four, so it is quite unsafe to rely upon mere proportionate qualities in works of a magnitude which has never yet been essayed. Theory may prove clearly enough that such and such plates may be combined into a ship, and that engines of a certain power will drive it a certain speed, but when those proportions vastly exceed any of which the combination is yet known to us, disturbing causes arise which no one apprehended. Our ship-builders will proceed more moderately. They have built vessels of 4000 tons, which answer admirably; they will go on to 5000 or 6000 tons; and from those starting points, strong in the new experiences there acquired, will go on until they quietly and safely build rivals of the Great Eastern.

The next Great Eastern will be built for work and not for show. She will be built by men who mean to make a profit out of her, and not by a company, which would have liked, indeed, to have made a profit, but subordinated business considerations to the glory of their enterprise as a triumph of national skill and strength. Here has been the great shoal upon which the big ship has so often grounded. Her directors have forgotten in the interest shown by the country in their undertaking, that they were stewards whose paramount duty it was to obtain a profit for their shareholders, and have fancied themselves public functionaries charged with a state ceremonial in which the best places were at their disposal for their own friends. Premature as the construction of the Great Eastern was, she might probably have paid, because she would have cost much less money and been much better built, if her directors had been mere men of business, only believing in pounds, shillings, and pence.

But after all is said of what might have been, that which now has the chief claim upon our attention. Here is the Great Eastern built and ready for sea, and our business would more fitly be to anticipate her future fortunes than recount her past mishaps. We do not see a very brilliant prospect before her. As a show or a transport she may remunerate her present proprietors, remembering that they have bought her at a low price, and her experience on the Atlantic or on the Indian Ocean may serve as a very useful lesson to our steam-ship builders.

CREATION AND RECREATION.

THERE are some words in our noble English tongue which have been singled out and set aside for one sole purpose, and which look strange if used out of the ordinary sense. Thus our first word, "creation," has acquired beyond its true sense a partially holy significance, and, connected as it is with the Creator, so much so that it seems almost profanity to use it in a more common sense. The old anecdote of the quaker, who said that he had verily "created" his waistcoat, since he ordered it "to be made, and it was made," smacks of this profanity, and unless used in cases where custom has taken away the sting, such as in speaking of the creation of a peer, the creations of an author, the creation of a new poem, &c., the word is so tightly confined to one meaning that we lose all the beauty of its use in others. So also we lose the beauty of its anti-

thesis—*Recreation*, if we only confine it to play or enjoyment, just as we have that of the word dissipation, which truly means idling or trifling, or elegant leisure, whilst we now intend something very different by it. Therefore, before we begin our essay, we may as well define our words. It is important that writers and thinkers should do so, especially when addressing a large audience. Creation: we take it to mean all kinds of work, and to intend also a very exhaustive process. Recreation is, on the other hand, a building up of that which the other had pulled down. Hard work, say our collegians and cabinmen, "takes it out of man or horse;" it meaning the natural *vis*, or force, the creative power in fact. If creation—i.e., work—be a necessity, then re-creation, or play, must be so also; and without something of this sort existence is a curse, and the workman nothing less than a slave, a very drudge. Indeed the word slave is too mild a one to use, for slaves in the Western and serfs in the Eastern hemisphere have plenty of holidays and enjoy them too; whilst the free man here who binds himself for money drudges away with more activity and exertion than he would if he were saleable like *Uncle Tom*, and had a taskmaster like *LEGREE* at his back.

It is generally believed that the English, as a nation, are the hardest workers in the world. They work at everything, and they do it with a will. At school and college, out in the world, at the desk, the pulpit, the bar, the House of Commons, the shop counter, in the ship, the steam carriage, or down in the mine, the labour is arduous and ceaseless. Not a night passes but what some thousands are working the whole long hours through in the pursuit of wealth, honour, fame, or other of those phantoms which the world will ever recklessly pursue. The headlong pace has had a sad effect upon our laborious classes. In the hardest working-cities and counties the race has very sadly deteriorated; the length of man's days are shortened, his strength decreased, his stature curtailed, his brain softened. Moreover, our madhouses are continually filling, day by day the increase of mental disorders astonishes and appals us. There is something very mournful in all this.

"From town and cottage, moor and fen,
Tells the doom of Englishmen,
Work, or the grave!"

The alternative is a sad one. It is for us, if possible, to render some little aid to lighten the burden of this ceaseless toil; it is for us to ventilate the subject, and to add what little we can to the accumulating testimony against over-labour.

As usual, the thinkers have been before us. In the scheme of Providence, it seems always that the deep thinker never can be a very active worker, and consequently he feels the curse of labour very much more acutely than any one else. He kicks against it as much as possible, and has devised plans for recreation by which the over-active man benefits, who would work himself to death else. Sir THOMAS MORE in his "Utopia" has a scheme whereby he gives up at least six hours out of the twelve for play; "half the day allotted to work," says he, "and half for honest recreation;" but such a scheme is nothing, cry our present slavedrivers, but "Utopian." Nevertheless, in one place it has been found to work well. It is not often that we can quote the practice of the *Mormons* with gratification, but it would be unjust to truth to say otherwise than that they have been so industrious and such perpetual workers, that the land into which they marched twenty years ago, then a barren desert, is now a smiling garden. Yet they religiously—for so it is inculcated—work only half their time and play the other. In addition to cultivation of the land they have built a city, villages, and bridges; made roads and canals, &c.; they all work, work with a will, and then play afterwards. The labour scheme, which seems to have been based upon the doctrines of CHARLES FOURRIER, seems to us to be the only bit of sugar which is there to sweeten their bitter lie, and a very bitter lie it is, as many a poor fellow has found; but yet when everybody works, when they have not (as yet) a do-nothing class which must be worked for, half-a-day's labour—not counting the Sabbath—is found to be enough to make their land overflow with material comforts. Nature's table is with them ever loaded, for she is so kind a mother that a very small exertion on our part makes her overwhelm us with favours.

Now we have with us non-productive classes,—we cannot call them do-nothing *pur et simple*, for many of them do absolutely a great deal, but, like the lilies of the field, they "sew not, neither do they spin." And, to carry the illustration further, they are so admirably dressed, that "not SOLOMON, in all his glory, was arrayed like one of these." Upon them, in a great measure, depends the comfort of the lower classes; for them the workers, or an immense body of them, actually exist, and from them, therefore, the working-classes actually demand forethought, and that kindness which will aid them in the present movement of early closing and a Saturday half-holiday. The demand, let us remember, is not for a half-holiday every day, but for a leisure time only once a week. There is nothing unreasonable in the demand; and when Lord ELCHO and others convened a meeting lately, we had many of the most eminent men in trade and manufacture giving the best evidence in favour of the movement. The proposition is as plain as a mathematical one in its demonstration. Shop-life is to the numbers who really work and carry on the business, a life of misery. Its monotony is dreadful; its pay is very little; in many instances marriage is impossible; in others, when such a luxury is indulged in, the father becomes a perfect stranger to his children and his wife. The shopman who marries is obliged to live at a distance from his workplace for the sake of economy in rent; he is, therefore, kept from home from morn till dewy eve,—no longer dewy for him. He reaches home wearied, and tired, and worried; and let us say that,

if his employment be not intellectual, it is astonishing what demand it makes upon the brain. The continual pressure of *petits soins* exhausts just as much as great ones; and they have also this added bitterness, that they are petty and humiliating. The diplomat who fancies that he has exhausted the wit and talent of a great brain in persuading an Emperor or a minister, has not had, perhaps, a much harder work than the assistant of an *Emporium* in determining the choice of Lady SMIGSMAG, or in soothing the complaints of Mrs. GRUFFENUFF. Lord BACON mentions a minister who, when he approached the QUEEN with documents for her signature, always engaged her in some other conversation, so that he led her thoughts away from the immediate unpleasantness, and obtained what he wanted. Many shopmen have to exercise a diplomacy quite as deep as this; they have, besides, to put up with constant disappointment and constant opposition; upon them devolves, after all, the prosperity of the "concern," for they are in immediate contact with the customers, and they can at any time repulse or attract; it is not too much to say that their patience and general attention as a body is wonderful, and their endurance is such that only can be acquired by long-continued practice. Their lives, let us add, fall far below the average. Their meals are not so comfortable, so wholesome, or enjoyable as those of the common day-labourer; their minds are so wearied by petty details, that, like a fallow field covered with small weeds, they cannot grow anything else. In addition to this, they are the general marks for ridicule and contempt; and that very clever but often cruel artist of *Punch*, Mr. LEECH, has continually ridiculed the shop-walker or counter-jumper, without once inquiring whether his satire was just or unjust.

It is to elevate this class and to free them for some little space from an exhausting bondage that the Saturday half-holiday is sought to be established. Those employers who have tried it speak fairly and honestly in favour of its results. They may well do so. One cannot benefit a whole class without benefiting oneself, and perhaps the most gratifying proof of the bond which exists between the workers and the nobility is, that the latter have come forward in this, and other instances, to aid the workers. The very lowest class, the artisans, have their holidays when they like. We all know what St. Monday is. The bankers close at four o'clock every day, the Government officers cease from their labours; but the shopmen must be ever ready in their shop; they must absolutely court and accumulate diseases peculiarly their own in their long service, and this really not for any benefit or public good, but for the sole benefit of their employers. SWIFT, after writing a few hours, used to run up hill just for recreation; SCOTT would work before breakfast and saunter and think afterwards; BULWER did not work at his desk for more than three hours a day, but many thousands of our fellows are kept at the desk and the counter for twelve and fourteen—nay, sixteen hours per day. "Fourteen hours at the forge," writes ELIHU BURRITT, "and three at the Hebrew Bible;" but the learned blacksmith had a noble purpose before him, and did not always work at that high-pressure rate. Our shopmen often do so, and they want relief;—employers will be wise if they grant it. The city is already in advance of the west-end of the town, and the great provincial towns in advance of London—perhaps because these latter understand better than we do here that the interest of their assistants is really their own. It will be well if our Rank and Fashion bear upon their tradesmen to make them follow the example. But we have already a commencement. Lord ELCHO is "to the fore," and a crowd of philanthropists after him. Seventy-five ladies of the highest rank, from the still beautiful Duchess of SUTHERLAND downwards, have, like the Maccabees, "bound themselves by a strong vow" not to shop on Saturdays after two o'clock, and many others will follow the truly noble example. The pressure from without has begun, and if it succeeds we may look to improved trade, more briskness and cheerfulness, better health both for master and man, and last, not least, for that rare bird an old shopman, who is now about as rarely met with as an old postboy. The disappearance of the latter has been accounted for, and of the former it may be said that they die early; worn-out by overwork in this world, they seek for their rest and recreation in the next, where there are no ribbons to measure, no cross old ladies to please, and where a poor young man may hope for something more than one half-holiday a week.

PARALLELS OF MISMANAGEMENT.

SOME men have been eternally haunted with the impression that nothing was altogether new to them. GOETHE and WALTER SCOTT were among the number. In many of the positions of life in which they found themselves, there was a vague feeling that all this had happened to them long ago, with the same incidents, the same actors. PYTHAGORAS may have owed his doctrine to something of this feeling;—we own to having experienced a sensation of a similar kind ourselves; and how much is there in the events around us to encourage and confirm this impression! What echoes of the past are constantly falling on our ears! Is this a copy of the "Mercurius Aulicus," or of "The Adventurer," or of this day's *Daily News* that we have been just perusing? We rub our eyes: does that figure, with a little bonnet resembling the knob, and the remainder the cone of the extinguisher, to which the *Tatler* aptly compares it?—does this figure, we say, pertain to our fair cousin, or to our great great grandmother? Is it FIGGINS, of the sign of the "Sugar Loaf," in Eastcheap, or his distant dual descendant in New Oxford Street, who has just been indicted for tampering with his groceries? Everything is being done over again:

"All, to refLOURISH, fades;
As in a wheel, all sinks to reascend;"

says the author of the "Night Thoughts;" but the wheel, when it is doing its duty as a wheel, makes, at the same time, its revolutions and its progress—a union of movements which, in the case of our social and political wheel, we are often sadly disposed to doubt. It is difficult to forbear a smile when GOLDSMITH or JOHNSON—we will vouch that it is one of them, though just now we forget which—compares the stationary bird's nest with the ship, which is eternally improving;—yes, perhaps the same ship, dubiously, and at very great expense, at Chatham, cut, and sliced, and extended, and abbreviated. The latter is what we prefer to do with quotations, but one we shall give in *extenso*, for it has dictated the present article, of which it will form a considerable part. It may make us despair, or ply the axe more manfully than ever at the root of the tree of corruption. SHERIDAN *loquitur*; date March 15th, 1804.

"It is known that out of the 120 gun-boats which the right honourable gentleman had in commission at the close of the last war, there were scarcely any retained as at all useful, and that sixty-two of them, which were purchased from contractors, were much the worst. Enough has been said by the honourable baronet of the kind of vessels which contractors generally built; and without referring to the ships of the line, of which the honourable baronet takes notice in proof of the badness of their materials and the inferiority of their workmanship, I shall only remark on these gun-boats. I do not, indeed, like to dwell on the misconduct of inferior officers in any department. I do not wish to hear of such persons in this house. We should always look to the heads of those departments as the persons answerable to us. The navy board may be suspected of having played into the hands of the contractors during the last war, and perhaps to that was owing the great inferiority of the right honourable gentleman's gun-boats—an inferiority which was certainly very glaring, for out of the 120, 87 were sold after advertisement for almost nothing; some which could not be disposed of were retained, and six were sent to Jersey, which were found so utterly useless, that Captain D'Auvergne knew not what to do with them. . . . Has the honourable gentleman observed the frauds exposed in the second report—the block and coopers' contracts, where £2,000 have been paid for work proved not to be worth £200? . . . What a melancholy expression that in those yards, where there were 3,200 men employed, nothing more than the repair of ships could be done. They could only finish in these yards twenty-four sail of the line, fifteen frigates, and some few sloops, in the course of twenty years, although it is known that forty-five shipwrights can build a 'seventy-four' in one year. As there are 3,200 shipwrights in those yards, and the expense could not be less, in twenty years, than £4,100,000, a sum equal to the building of the whole navy of England, it follows, of course, that it is bad policy to continue the maintenance of those dockyards. . . I assert, and am prepared to maintain the assertion, that abuse pervades every department of the system. Does the right honourable gentleman know of the frauds which the commissioners have found to have been committed in every article with which these yards are furnished?" &c.

These places are Gibraltar-forts of immovable and corrupt routine. Energetic and patriotic officers have since nearly broken their hearts, and expended all their energies in trying to overcome the surd dead resistance of their interested and vicious system; and so we are taxed from generation to generation unmercifully with a Legislature which cannot or will not defend us.

"Oh, foolish Israel, never warned of ill [effectively].
Still the same baits, and circumvented still."

Many of the calamitous blunders in connection with the Crimean campaign were mere echoes, confirmatory of a striking expression of MARLBOROUGH's in one of his letters to GODOLPHIN, Sept. 2nd, 1702, alluding to our commissariat—"England, that is famous for negligence."

Our returning soldiers have been recently poisoned with bad provisions. An historian of the reign of Queen ANNE says:—"We lost many of our seamen, who, as was said, were poisoned by ill food; and though great complaints were made of the victuallers"—precisely as at present, "yet there was not such care taken to look into it as a matter of such consequence deserved." (1703.) Of course not; but we are forgetting our Crimean echoes.

We find in a speech of Fox's, in 1779:—"Had not all intelligence been destroyed by an invisible cabinet influence, could it ever have happened that there should ever have been, in one of our lately-captured islands, one hundred and fifty pieces of ordnance and only forty men to work them? Could there have been in one place cannon without balls; and, in another, balls without cannon?"

Let us take SHERIDAN again: April 21st, 1796, when he remonstrates on the "deplorable condition of the troops in consequence of excessive fatigue . . . their want of proper clothing, and particularly their want of shoes."

Then, as now, we suppose contractors had been pocketing the money which ought to have contributed to the comfort and efficiency of the troops. Again, in the same speech: "The hospitals in Martinico were crowded with British officers and soldiers, who were not only in want of medicines, but even bandages to dress the wounds."

Hear SHERIDAN again, Feb. 10th, 1800:—"It has been positively asserted, that the army was left without baggage-waggons; that they were first cheered with the hope that certain ships in sight contained these waggons, and that afterwards their hopes were damped on being told that the waggons were in some ships, but the wheels were in others. Was it true that such ignorance prevailed of the roads in Holland, that the waggons which were afterwards employed proved useless?"

Fox, in 1801 (we cannot refer to the day), in his speech on the State of the Nation:—"Ten thousand Irish militia were to come to England, and ten thousand English to go to Ireland. Some of the troops wanted their new coats, some their arms."

No one can say that, in these points, we have degenerated from our ancestors. It is the same in the matter of general preparation. Enormous sums of money are paid for the defence of the country, yet, were it not for the patriotism and private expenditure of the volunteers, all parties are obliged to admit, that we should be but poorly provided in case of foreign invasion;—in other words, in spite of an income-tax, we are obliged for our safety and honour sake to tax ourselves doubly. We are on the very edge of danger before Government bestirs itself: such has always been our wont.

A member of the administration, and a man of no desponding temper, HENRY FOX, in his confidential letters at this period (1745), admits and deplores the state of public feeling. "England," WADDE says, "I believe, is for the first comer; and if you can tell whether the 6,000 Dutch and the ten battalions of English, or 5,000 French or Spaniards will be here first, you know our fate. The French are not come, God be thanked! but had 5,000 landed on any part of the island a week ago, I verily believe the entire conquest would not have cost them a battle."

Again, take the first PITT, in 1777, in his speech on the Address (MAHON's History, chap. xxviii.):—"My lords, what is the condition of your formidable and inveterate enemies? . . . They have a formidable navy. I say, my lords, their intentions are hostile. What have you to oppose to them? Not 5,000 men in this island, not more in Ireland. Without an immediate restoration of tranquillity, this nation is ruined," &c.

We are certainly better off, rather, than when CHATHAM made this appeal; but still the habit of the nation, or rather of its Governments, remains pretty much the same. If England has been saved, it has been owing to Providence, to the energy of the people when called out by necessity, and to, here and there, an honest and business-like man in our administration. Time and taxation cannot be said to have taught us many lessons of providence or economy. A more democratic Government than those which have hitherto managed our business for us, might possibly be as careless, as corrupt, and more ignorant; but in the articles of thrift, vigilance, and purity, the majority of those who have hitherto held the reins certainly have had but little to boast of.

THE ABODE OF LOVE.

IT WAS HORACE, we believe, who remarked that no man could be completely happy who was liable to a cold in the head. So it may be affirmed that the possessor of property, or wealth, cannot account himself supremely blest, while he is subject to the dispensation of the Court of Chancery. It seems to be as easy for the man or woman of property to escape Chancery process, as for humanity in general to avoid the *defluxus nasæ*. Erring man will draw up reckless conveyances, and go out in the rain without his umbrella. But who would have thought that the Abode of Love would ever get into Chancery? Who would have thought that the LORD HIGH CHANCELLOR would ever get the head of Mr. PRINCE under his arm—PRINCE, the perfect man, the Apostle of universal love, brotherhood, and a common purse, kept and dispensed by Apostle PRINCE himself! Yet so it is. If the course of love has run smoothly in the Agapemone, its peace at least has been rudely broken; and here are the relatives of Miss LOUISA JANE NOTTIDGE disputing the right of Apostle PRINCE to a legacy left to him by the said Miss LOUISA JANE NOTTIDGE, on the ground that the said Miss LOUISA JANE NOTTIDGE was not in possession of her sound senses at the time she made the will. It is possible that in this case Mr. PRINCE will have the law on his side. The deceased lady had been placed in a lunatic asylum by her relatives, but got out again on establishing her sanity. So far it can be proved that Miss NOTTIDGE has been pronounced a sane person by competent authority. Ordinary judges, however, who are not trammelled with professional competency, may take another view of the matter, when they have been favoured with a glimpse of the internal economy of the Abode of Love, where Miss NOTTIDGE resided under the spiritual and temporal care of Apostle PRINCE. PRINCE, it appears, was originally a clergyman of the Church of England, but had the misfortune twice to be deprived of his license—on the first occasion by the Bishop of BATH and WELLS, on the second by the Bishop of ELY. Whether it was that Mr. PRINCE was too good or too bad for the Establishment we are not aware; but he irrevocably lost his flock. A short time after this, he set up a chapel of his own in the congenial soil of Brighton, and called it the Chapel of ABULLAM. Here he first began to discover that he had a mission to perform, and he set himself to perform it accordingly. He managed to attract a select audience of ladies of a certain age, and his new doctrine of love and community of temporal interests became very popular with the tender sex; so popular, indeed, that four sisters of the name of NOTTIDGE, all possessing considerable property, were found willing to throw their wealth, or a portion of their wealth, into a common stock, to enable Mr. PRINCE to found an Abode of Love, where they could all reside together in undisturbed harmony. Mr. PRINCE at once selected Somersetshire for the locality of this new temple, and straightway laid out the money of the Misses NOTTIDGE in purchasing a property of four hundred acres. To this place, when the Abode was ready, Mr. PRINCE, issuing from his cave of ABULLAM at Brighton, made his way with the four sisters under his protecting wings. And quite a magnificent place the Abode seems to be. There is a handsome house, handsomely furnished; there are gardens,

pleasure-grounds, hot-houses, conservatories, poultry-yards, stables, and, indeed, all the appliances of a nobleman's mansion. The house was large, and Mr. PRINCE could accommodate a considerable number of boarders; and it appears he rarely had vacancies. Indeed, the style of living at the Abode was highly attractive: the table was liberal, the minor comforts of the boarders were well cared for, and there was no restriction upon personal liberty, once the boarder had paid over or conveyed by deed all they possessed to Mr. PRINCE. Mr. PRINCE was no ascetic. By no means. His doctrine admitted of good dinners, and regular dinners; it did not forbid hockey; there was a suspicion that it favoured cricket, and it certainly encouraged horse-riding. The Misses NOTTIDGE and the other boarders could all have their park horses for paying for them, and Mr. PRINCE himself had a partiality for driving out in a chaise and four. Altogether it seems to have been a very jolly place to stop a week at, if Mr. PRINCE would only have extended his hospitality to the outside public. On this point alone, he was monastic. He liked to keep his love to himself and the boarders. Well, really there is nothing very dreadful in all this. Have we not heard of hydropathic establishments kept by handsome young doctors, where delicate ladies live in much the same way? The doctor keeps a fine house; presides at a well-supplied board; attends the ladies in their walks and rides, prescribes for them, makes love to them, and occasionally marries the most eligible one that he can persuade to have him. The only difference that we can see between Mr. PRINCE's establishment and one of these is, that whereas the hydropathic apostle accepts a stated amount for the board, lodging, recreation, and benefit of waters which he offers to his patients, Mr. PRINCE eases them of the whole of their cash, and in place of medicinal water offers religious consolation. It is true that the breath of scandal has fallen both upon the Abode of Water and the Abode of Love. Envious neighbours, whose curiosity frets itself against the jealous gates of these bowers of bliss, whisper of doings which will not bear the light. No evidence, however, has been adduced to show that anything very immoral has taken place at the Agapemone. Mr. PRINCE seems to have preferred elderly female lodgers—old maids in fact. His intentions towards them in a matrimonial point of view appear to have been highly honourable and merciful. The conscientiousness of his disciples, Messrs. COBBLE, THOMAS, and PRICE, who had visions revealing to them that it was their duty to marry three rather aged and, as it is said, half-witted Misses NOTTIDGE, is worthy of all admiration. Did they hesitate? Aged and half-witted as the ladies were, they married them off-hand in obedience to the decrees of Heaven. Under these circumstances, what could old maids possessed of only half their wits do, but give up all their property to their lords—all that they possessed worth having? We have had a vast number of new tabernacles, dispensations, millenniums, and doctrines of late years; but undoubtedly Mr. PRINCE's is at once the most practical, and on the whole, most comfortable we have met with. No mortification at the Abode of Love; all on the principle of Enjoy yourself as much as you can—eat, drink, and be merry, for the day of judgment is past; the time for prayer and supplication is over; self-denial and humiliation are no longer virtues, and you have nothing to fear, nothing to do but make yourself happy.

We cannot trust ourselves to comment upon the reasonableness of Mr. PRINCE's doctrine, or to question Mr. PRINCE's sincerity. In these days religious toleration has reached such a pitch, that you must not condemn a man as a madman, or a fanatic, even if he should select the Beadle of Exeter 'Change as the object of his worship. Let this Beadle establish himself in some Adullam in Drury Lane, or say in his own 'Change, and preach—with sufficient eloquence—Sunday after Sunday, that he is the coming man—come, a perfect man though a beadle, and therefore the sign of a new era, and he will find people to listen to him, and believe him; and more than that, he will find grave journalists, not suspected to be half-witted, insisting that we must not call his doctrines blasphemous and ridiculous, because this is a land of religious toleration, where every man's faith is entitled to respect. We should hesitate then to be guilty of the intolerance of denouncing Mr. PRINCE either as a fanatic or a rogue. His assertion that he is the servant of the LORD; that the LORD has opened His counsels to him; that the Judgment is past, that the Bible is out of date, and that all the world outside the gates of the Agapemone is damned to all eternity—is not to be regarded either as blasphemous or absurd. Nor is the sanity of Miss LOUISA JANE NOTTIDGE, who believed all this, and gave up all her property to PRINCE in the belief that he was the holder of a Divine commission and the new Tabernacle of the Flesh, to be doubted or questioned. We can only congratulate Mr. PRINCE that his new dispensation—a dispensation so exceedingly comfortable and indulgent—has been enunciated in times when religious toleration can be extended even to the wildest blasphemies and the most flagrant impostures.

AUSTRIA—HER CHARACTER, AND DEALINGS WITH HUNGARY.

THE concessions of despotic Governments are almost always the result of fear and pressure, resumed at the earliest opportunity; and at the brief banquet of freedom the people seem all to sit, like the Sicilian DAMOCLES, under the "hair-suspended sword." All history, old and recent, proves this position, and there is small hope for a people if they stop short of wide organic changes, or unless they are endowed with extraordinary firmness and persistence of purpose—or lastly, as was formerly the case with England, unless

there is such a struggle between the higher Powers in the State, as to make an appeal to the people the best policy for the contending parties alternately. For want of one or more of these conditions, most of the nations of Europe present us with a scene of constitutions granted and violated, and the fragments of promises given under pressure, and broken the instant that pressure was removed. Small are the thanks for any advice given to despotic Governments in times of tranquillity; blinded with pride and power, they either will not accept the advice, or if by any chance they are led to adopt a prudent measure it is pretty sure that the prudent measure will not be a sincere and a final one.

Of Austria it is difficult to write with ordinary patience, especially for an Englishman who knows anything of the history of his own country, and of its connexions with Austria. We care little about adopting a mild or friendly tone in any of our remonstrances with her, feeling sure that nothing but an exclusive regard for her own interests will tempt her to throw her sword into the scale either of liberty or tyranny in a European contention.

Even where these interests have been strictly coincident, it could rarely be said that England had reason to be thoroughly satisfied with the good faith of Austria. In the parliamentary discussions to which these relationships have given rise, the Tory peace party in the reign of ANNE, and the Whig peace party in the last general war, found her conduct equally open to attack, and the two war parties equally difficult fairly to justify. We might make many citations from SWIFT and BOLINGBROKE, in the earlier, and from SHERIDAN and others in the latter periods; we prefer avoiding evidently party men, and will content ourselves with one quotation from BURKE, in his "Thoughts on French affairs," premising that he wished to conciliate the monarchical party in Europe, wherever it was possible. Yet he is obliged to speak thus of Austrian selfishness:—

"The present policy of Austria is to recover despotism through democracy, or, at least, at any expense; everywhere to ruin the description of men who are everywhere the objects of their settled and systematic aversion, but more especially in the Netherlands. Compare this with the Emperor's refusing at first all intercourse with the present powers of France, with his endeavouring to excite all Europe against them, and then his not only withdrawing all assistance and all countenance from the fugitives who had been drawn by his declarations from their houses, situations, and military commissions—many even from the means of their very existence, but treating them with every species of insult and outrage." So much for the commencement, and now for the close of that war. After many severe losses Austria tried to connect herself with the spoiler of Europe for safety: every scholar and reader of history knows the line—"Bella gerant alii tu felix Austria nube." She tried once more to put a wedding-ring into the nose of Fortune, and in a measure she succeeded, for the pledge helped her to betray. We are not in the habit of pitying the first NAPOLEON, but if the shade of JOSEPHINE did not forbid, we should almost pity him when, after his defeat in Russia, METTERNICH, the outlook of Austria, was watching with cat-like glance, whether the safest policy would be to support or to betray the son-in-law. Accustomed to every treachery, it was a move which even NAPOLEON himself could scarcely credit, and which an Englishman, even though he was the gainer by it, could scarcely praise. Look where we will for the policy and conduct of Austria, we find her begging, borrowing, self-seeking, oppressing, and betraying—the servant, and not the leader of events.

We do not, as a matter of course, sympathize out of measure with the weak, or, at least, though we sympathize with them we do not forget their faults: we know with regard to Poland, for instance, what many of the sympathizers do not, that her final fall was owing in a great measure to the discords and jealousies of her own nobility, that her elective monarchy while it lasted was a nuisance to Europe, and that she had robbed Russia by wholesale of territory, before Russia robbed her. We know of the Hungarians, Igours, Ugri, or Ungheun, according to the different etymologies brethren of the Turks, that they were the merciless ravagers of France, Italy, and Germany, and we suppose that "time brings its revenges." But their conversion and final union with Germany was its salvation from their own Mohammedan kindred. We know too, from the accounts of intelligent travellers, that their Protestantism has been rather of that querulous and jealous kind, often found in the professors of a tolerated religion, such as we observe in the presbyterianism of Scotland, and the second period of Roman Christianity, as soon as it dared to show its irritability—an irritability which always passes by contagion to the dominant power which it dis-temper, but still not sufficient in this case either to justify or account for the large scale and wide measure of recent Popish aggression. Indeed, had the Protestants been as submissive and as socially agreeable as they may have been the reverse, no doubt the same measures would have been taken.

The debt of Austria to Hungary has been immense, from the time when the latter nation, in 1687, willingly acknowledged JOSEPH the son of LEOPOLD I. as the hereditary King of Hungary, on the condition, on the part of the Protestants of both the Lutheran and Calvinist professions, that they should be left in possession of those churches and prerogatives which had been secured to them by the diet of Odenburg—liberties and privileges which, in fact, have never been secured substantially. We will here introduce a passage from BURNET's "History of His Own Times," in which the State of Hungary is incidentally mentioned, because it is an expression of the general style of Austrian conduct towards the dependent State:—

"It is certain that the Germans played the masters very severely

in that State (Hungary), so that all places were full of complaints; and the EMPEROR was so besieged by the authors of these oppressions, and the proceedings were so summary, upon very slight grounds, that it was not to be wondered if the Hungarians were disposed to shake off the yoke, when a proper opportunity should offer itself. "And," he adds, "it is not to be doubted but the French had agents among them"—a description of danger which it seems Austria is willing repeatedly to incur, rather than forego her meddling. This was in 1701. Shortly afterwards, RAGOTZI was made King, but on his expulsion, the Austrian EMPEROR was again admitted to the Royalty, on his once more engaging to leave to Hungary its civil and religious liberties.

After this, in 1722, the Hungarians made the further concession of admitting even the female heirs of the House of Austria to their throne—an addition to the before-mentioned arrangement. Almost every reader knows that, later in the century, Austria's debt of gratitude was enhanced—that the Hungarians literally saved the throne of Austria from FREDERICK the GREAT. They have been faithful subjects in extremity, and for all this Austria's debt has been paid in repeatedly-violated covenants.

We repeat, that we do not consider the Hungarians positively blameless: such men as RAGOTZI and TEKELYI may have been unreasonable; the congregations may have been unwise in rejecting the reforms of JOSEPH II., simply because he had not gone through the ceremonial of being crowned King of Hungary. In their internal administration, as far as it has been left to themselves, the country nobles may have been overbearing and ignorant, and the town deputies silent and despised—but Austria has had no right to forget her obligations and violate her word. In social matters, Hungary owes nothing to Austria. Not many years ago, a German traveller, KOHL, was able to say that "there did not exist in Hungary one hospital, almshouse, poor-house, or lunatic asylum supported or instituted by Government. All improvement was left to such men as SZECHENYI and KOSUTH—long before the latter name was known as that of a justly malcontent missionary of resistance against Austria.

Austria has not a moment to lose in thoroughly conciliating Hungary, if she wishes to concentrate her strength for any coming struggle. Her last move was the act of blindness and bigotry—bad for herself, bad even for the religion of which she wishes to be the champion, and which has made its last advances in England, at any rate, solely on the ground that in Germany, at least, it had ceased to be tyrannical and aggressive. This was one of the key-notes of almost all the thinking men who advocated the measure of Roman Catholic Emancipation. A cross is often erected where brigands have committed a murder. Perhaps the Cross of Rome more strongly resembles the hilt of the dagger left in the body of expiring liberty—

"Extantes reclusis
Pectoribus capulos (Italians)."

We hope sincerely that any reform which Austria may be making in her treatment of the Protestants of Hungary may be permanent, but we cannot help reverting to past experience in this matter.

THE GREAT FORTIFICATION JOB.

THE country is now in possession of the expected report of the Fortification Commissioners, and no one will be disappointed at the result. It was wise on the part of the Government to bring such a question before Parliament towards the close of a session, and the votes required, if taken at all, will be most appropriately passed in the small hours of the morning, when vigilance has been outwashed and the national purse guardians are asleep. The sum demanded for this precious scheme is just under twelve millions,—the Commissioners, with a ludicrous affectation of exactness, stopping short at £11,850,000. For this sum, in a little more than three years, we may construct works at various places, as the following table will show:—

Place.	Recommendations of the Royal Commission.		Already authorized, but not voted.	Total.
	Purchase of Land.	Erection of Works.		
Portsmouth	£ 230,000	£ 2,070,000	£ 400,000	£ 2,500,000
Plymouth	755,000	1,915,000	350,000	3,020,000
Fembroke	160,000	450,000	165,000	765,000
Portland	100,000	150,000	380,000	630,000
Thames	50,000	180,000	Nil.	230,000
Medway and Sheerness	180,000	400,000	Nil.	580,000
Chatham	300,000	1,170,000	Nil.	1,470,000
Woolwich	300,000	400,000	Nil.	700,000
Dover	20,000	150,000	165,000	335,000
Cork	—	120,000	Nil.	120,000
Armament of Works	—	—	—	500,000
Floating Defences	—	—	—	1,000,000
Total	£1,880,000	7,005,000	1,460,000	11,850,000

The pretence of every job is its economy, and an obsequious Cabinet could have no difficulty in proving that the country was a gainer by paying His Royal Highness PATERFAMILIAS the salary of a Field-Marshal in addition to his other pay. Our Commissioners pretend that their fortifications would enable us to do with fewer troops, although the contrary is obviously the case, for every one of the plans specified would require large garrisons, and additional forces must be provided to meet the enemy in the field. We are almost surprised that our fortifiers admit that the whole coast

cannot be defended by walls, batteries, and bastions. Sir JOSEPH PAXTON's notable design of putting all London under a glass case, and growing our metropolitan beauties like hothouse grapes, would have been transcended by a scheme for encircling our tight little island with ramparts and guns, and Lord ELGIN might have been commissioned to send home plans and particulars of the Chinese wall.

One great object which the fortification schemes had in view, was to provide for the defence of our chief arsenals, if they were assailed by a large force landed upon our shores. The theory is, that our Channel fleet would be certain of preventing the landing of an army on some part of the coast, and from this probable surmise a false inference is drawn, that great fortifications are desirable. In the first place, if our home fleet were well appointed, and did its duty, and if our chief rivers were defended by gunboats, and movable Armstrong guns along their banks, no important landing-place could be many hours in the possession of an enemy; and we must remember, it would require several days to land a large army, with its complement of cavalry, artillery, baggage, and stores. It would be a great achievement for all possible enemies combined, if they could disembark 100,000 men anywhere near an important place, and such a number we ought to be able to deal with, without putting them to the trouble of a tiresome siege. To make out the amount of weakness necessary for the success of our invaders, if no fortifications checked the ardour of their arms, it is necessary to dispose of our volunteer forces, and fortification commissioners can beat as many as you like with a stroke of the pen. This kind of authority manufactures its own history, as well as its designs for forts, and wilfully ignores the abundant proof that volunteer troops are fully equal to regular armies. The soldiers of a French revolution who scattered the best-drilled legions of their enemies, were to all intents and purposes volunteers—not practised men. The Hungarian volunteers put to flight the old warriors of Austria, and GARIBALDI's *Cacciatori* did not fail either at Varese or in Sicily, because regular troops fought against them. The Fortification Commissioners and army red-tape officers confound raw levies with trained and well-armed volunteers. There is no reason why our volunteers should be ignorant of their business; they have proved that they can learn soldiering much quicker than the ignorant men who are the usual subjects of the recruiting sergeant's engaging attentions; and all that they want to make them efficient in the field is, to be commanded by officers whom they believe they can trust. Under a GARIBALDI they would not flinch from any foe; and if war should arise, our patriotic QUEEN would no doubt look up the GREYS and PHIPPES in one of the royal cupboards until the victory was won.

We shall return to this subject at greater length on another occasion, but we could not lose a moment in denouncing a scheme that can only be the precursor of sinister designs upon the national credulity and purse, and would have us trust in stone walls, rather than in that indomitable courage of our people which has never failed us in the hour of need.

MUSEUMS AND PICTURE GALLERIES.

IT does not appear probable that the British public will trouble itself much about its collections of paintings, sculpture, and antiquities. It is in a very secondary degree affected by natural history, however well exemplified and illustrated by stuffed beasts, birds, fishes, insects, and reptiles. It does not care greatly for menageries, though it is always well pleased when it does catch a glimpse of them, and it will even spare a second or so to view the happy family at the foot of Waterloo Bridge. But beyond this quiet acquiescence in them as good things, which belong to itself, and are therefore to be proud of, it takes no further care; and were they—National Gallery, British Museum, and all—transplanted to Coventry, it would do no more than growl for a week or two, and declare the whole proceeding a disgraceful job. We all know that the British lion is a remarkably somniferous animal, hard to awake, and when awakened hard to stir up. You may do anything to him but take away his dinner, and he will let a good deal of that go before he will get up.

Presuming upon this notable good nature of the beast, those who manage his art-concerns for him take very much their own way, and copy a leaf out of the Spanish book, and as in that country when it rains they "let it rain," so here, when the British lion growls they let him growl. We have lately had several striking instances of this. Sir EDWIN LANDSEER, a painter, has been appointed to carve the lions for the base of the NELSON monument; they were given to Mr. LOUGH; but, as he is a sculptor, and peculiarly skilled in animal life, the commission was cancelled, lest an insane idea should get abroad that a man who has anything to do for Government in the way of art ought to be qualified to do it well. Indeed, the prevailing notion seems to be that a novice should be employed, because if he goes wrong, the nation can pay for it, and never mind the little bill which comes in among the miscellaneous estimates at the end of the year, and really is such a trifle after all. The only condition is that he should be a novice of the right sort, that he should be a friend, or what is still better a connection of the family—that he should be in good odour with GREYS, RUSSELLS, and ELLIOTTS, or, what is equally meritorious, that he should be a German. Experiments have been lately made with so much success on the public temper, that we shall soon have a new arrangement of all our treasures of art, unless we can stir up a little feeling on the subject. The plan is by no means given up of removing the pictures from the National Gallery to Kensington, where, as a means of

education, they will be all but useless. It is not probable that the stuffed animals will retain possession of the Museum much longer; they will be taken to the same place, and the Eastern and Central parts of the metropolis will have as much share in or benefit from them as they have in the treasures of the Louvre, or those of the Jardin des Plantes.

If our men of art and men of science could only be got to act harmoniously, we might yet have a plan devised which should render available for their most important purposes the really magnificent collections which we possess. The first requisite is undoubtedly that those of one kind should be kept together. We will begin with pictures. Foreigners are fond of comparing the great galleries on the Continent with the comparatively poor collection in the National Gallery; they say, look at France, Belgium, Spain, Tuscany, Rome, Dresden—all unquestionably have finer collections than our own; but then these are made the most of, and ours is treated on the contrary principle. It is true that the national collection is enlarged and enlarging, and that it is not fairly estimated by those foreigners who sneer at it; but granting all this, we do not ourselves do it justice. We have many separate collections, and we ought to make them into one. If the VERNON collection, the TURNER gallery, the pictures given by Mr. SHEEPHANKS, the chief from Hampton Court, and others equally the property of the nation, were all gathered together at Charing Cross, our gallery would almost vie with that of France. And why should it not be so? The great utility of a large gallery to the student is, that it enables him to compare a great number of schools and styles; that he may, while the impression is fresh in his mind, look from one to the other; that he may be spared, not so much the trouble and time of running from one part of London to another, as the fading out of the impression made at once on the eye and on the mind. The nation would gain in credit, the student in facilities for perfecting himself in his art, and he who only desires help in a general, not a special education, would be able to improve his taste and gratify his mind at the least possible expenditure of time and labour. Indeed, much as we object to the removal of the pictures from Charing Cross, we would rather consent to this, if all our national pictorial treasures were gathered together, than see them permanently separated. Kensington is not an inaccessible place; and though it would be a hard thing for Hackney, Clapton, Stoke Newington, and places similarly situated, to find themselves virtually further off from the centre of civilization and refinement, yet the gallery would be more efficient as a school of art, and artists must come and live near the pictures.

But the question may arise, What is the province of Art? Is it to diffuse the light of taste, and genius, and refinement over society; or is it merely to perpetuate itself by raising up new artists? There are some who maintain this latter theory. We are not of the number; and while we admit that, as a school for painters, the pictures might do as well at Kensington as at Charing Cross, still, in all other respects, they would be infinitely less useful. We have lately heard a great deal about the effect of gas upon paintings, and the possibility of their being exhibited by artificial light, and thus made accessible in the evening; and it appears tolerably clear that there is no difficulty in the matter at all—that the pictures suffer no injury, and that they can be profitably seen and appreciated. Now, if an atmosphere lighted by gas does not injure them, surely nothing more can be said about the air of Charing Cross being unwholesome for their complexions. Indeed, we imagine that notion to be now altogether exploded. We would gladly see artisans and their families enjoying the sight of those magnificent works of art, and profiting by the enjoyment. We would educate their eyes to the beauties of form and colour, and raise up men capable of designs as graceful as those which we now obtain from France and Italy. For this purpose, our great collection should be as centrally situated as possible. It is a fatiguing thing to examine a gallery, and a long, tedious walk is anything rather than a good preparation for it. The fact is, that the people have some right to be considered in the matter, and as yet their convenience has been altogether neglected. There is no sufficient reason why all our pictures should not be congregated at Charing Cross; the building is capable of almost indefinite extension. The National Portrait Gallery ought to be under the same roof with the Cartoons of RAPHAEL and the legacy of TURNER, and all within reach of every part of the metropolis.

Again, time as well as place should be considered; it is useless to crowd too many classes of objects together. The variety distracts the mind, and prevents any one from being useful. Kensington is a very good place for objects of miscellaneous art. Jewellery, furniture, china, majolica ware, carvings in ivory, shrines,—all may be studied here to advantage. The Architectural Museum is quite in its place, nor do we object to models of machinery and educational materials; but the painting and sculpture we would most decidedly remove. We want a great school for sculpture. We see no reason why it should not be all collected in the British Museum; or if, which would be better still, the National Gallery were sufficiently enlarged, it might find a place there. But when we speak of sculpture, we would not only exhibit the actual works of ancient genius which we possess in that art, we would secure sufficient works of our own eminent men to show what we have done ourselves, and what we can still do. It is a disgrace to us as a nation that we have not a gallery of modern sculpture. FLAXMAN, NOLLEKENS, CHANTREY, among the departed; LOUGH among the living, not to mention BAILEY, PICKERSGILL, MARSHALL WOOD, and many others, would surely afford materials for such a collection, of which the nation might justly be proud, and for which it would

be willing liberally to pay. Again, we should have specimens of French and Italian, of German and Swedish sculpture, and be able to compare the meretricious school of CANOVA with the pure and noble conceptions of some whom we have named. We ought to have the power of comparing PHIDIAS and PRAXITELES with those who are following the same path to glory, and of estimating who has approached the nearest to the grand simplicity of the antique. Were such a gallery open to the public, the public would learn what it little suspects, and what some in high places do not wish it to know, viz., that we are as far in advance of all other nations in this purest and noblest of the arts as we are in railways, steam engines, and spinning-jennies.

Once more, we want a gallery of comparative painting, the productions of the modern French, German, Italian, and Spanish schools—for there is a Spanish school—placed so that they can be compared one with another, and all with our own. We should have the same cause for exultation here. England heads the world in painting, in sculpture, and in architecture, in engineering, and in all save the lower department of the arts of design. What is now wanted is simply this—that those who are so well qualified to teach should be permitted to speak to the people; for this reason we would make Charing Cross the school for painting and sculpture, and we would make it as complete as possible. We want good casts of the great works of antiquity of which we do not possess the originals, and to these should be added some of the more remarkable of modern continental works.

A few casts of some Assyrian slabs would find a place in such a gallery as bearing upon the history of art; but the originals should be kept in the Museum, as, strictly speaking, antiquities. On the other hand, the ELGIN marbles, as works of high art, should be removed bodily to the gallery. A few casts of Egyptian specimens might, for historical purposes, be placed in the gallery, while the originals should remain where they are; and by this transfer the Museum would be made large enough to display many treasures which at present are not exhibited, simply for want of room. Another reform must come, and the sooner the better. The Museum ought to be open every day from ten o'clock in the morning till ten o'clock at night. If pictures can stand gas, surely there is nothing in the Museum which can be hurt by it. To talk of expense is more than absurd; we squander away yearly twenty times as much as would double the staff of officers at the Museum, and pay them well. At present they are too few in number, and too poorly remunerated. That the national collection is open only three days in the week is a fact which few foreigners will believe; it is a source of innumerable disappointments, and is nothing short of a blot upon our national escutcheon. It would be a university in itself, were it opened every day, and all day long; and all that is wanted to secure this is merely the advocacy in Parliament of some true friend of the people. This would furnish a more powerful rival to the beer-shop and the gin-palace than any yet devised, and would do as much to spread among the people a love for history and science, as a gallery such as we could have would do to promote a love and knowledge of art.

THE GALWAY STEAM LINE.

THE announcement which lately appeared to the effect that the Government had appointed the 25th of this month for the first new steamer of the Galway line to open the fortnightly service between Ireland and America, according to the terms of the contract for the subsidy, has been received in Ireland with the gratification due to such cheering intelligence. Not that any doubt has, for long past, existed in well-informed circles, that the contract would be carried out and the vessels run, but still the fulfilment of a great promise and the fruition of a great boon cannot and should not be realized without a due manifestation of satisfaction on the part of those who are most directly concerned and benefited. Henceforth the Galway line ceases to be the subject of doubts and innuendoes, of inquiries and committees; it will no longer furnish a partisan rallying cry, or be the butt of jealous attack. It now forms an established part of the great postal scheme of the empire, and for at least seven years must be acknowledged as such. The Atlantic Company's magnificent steamer, the Connaught, leads off first in the new great postal race, and now that the question is settled and all animosities laid aside, there is no one, we should think, so unworthy as not to bid the noble ship "good speed" on her destined trans-Atlantic course.

Now that the much-looked-for report of the Committee on Contracts has come out, we are enabled to learn how contracts are obtained and how refused. We are let into the secret of a good deal of blundering and a good deal of by-play. Of course we are: how could it be otherwise? If even so plain a matter as a contract for a gunboat cannot be carried out without the most flagrant jobbery and the most direful results, what can we expect when two or three departments, each equal to any amount of incapacity and blunders, are muddled in confusion to produce one result? The Treasury, the Admiralty, and the Post-office have all a finger in the contract pie. The wonder is not how anything should be done, but that it is done at all. Be this as it may, not only has a line of steamers been established from Galway to America; but Sir SAMUEL CUNARD, pending the decision of the contract, and in rivalry to the Galway line as kept open by the energy of its promoters, started the Line from Queenstown, Ireland, and even the Canadian steamers are to make Londonderry their port of departure. The Committee on Contracts acknowledge that they doubt whether Cork would ever have become

a CUNARD packet-station, unless the pioneer boats had been established at Galway. We are tolerably well assured that up to this date Ireland would not have been able to boast of any line but for the experiment of Mr. LEVER. Ireland now bids fair to become the highway of Transatlantic intercourse with Great Britain. It has long been her due by geographical right, enhanced by her people's wants. The promoters of the Galway Line might be pardoned, looking at the grand national results obtained, had they been guilty of a little political stratagem, in this loose age of public morals. They had to steer a difficult course between the Scylla and Charybdis of the Post-office and Admiralty, with the rocks and shoals of the Treasury ahead. Sir S. CUNARD was their POLYPHEMUS, and rival interests their LÆSTRYGOES, eager for their shipwreck and destruction. But it is not proved, nor does it appear, after all the cry that was raised, to have done anything tricky or underhand in the matter. Mr. LEVER's return for Galway was, to say the least, an improbability long after the Government had exhibited a sympathy with the Irish scheme. The Irish members of Parliament were by no means so patriotic as to shape their votes in consideration of a measure being passed by Ministers, fraught with blessings to Ireland, or the reverse. That is not the practical way to catch the votes of Irish members. Look at the fact in this case. The Galway grant was promised by the late Government, which found itself in a minority fatal to its existence. It was understood that the incoming Government was not favourable to the grant. Lord DERBY did not gain, nor Lord PALMERSTON lose a single Irish supporter on account of this transaction. Lord DUNKELIN was an ardent supporter of the line, and how did he vote? Lord BURY, then an English member, is a director of the line: and how did he vote? As for Mr. ROEBUCK, none will suspect him of voting against his convictions; but since he saw fit to withdraw his support from Lord PALMERSTON, he therefore withdrew from the direction of the Galway line. Whatever then the confusion, blunders, and want of harmony arising from the division of responsibility in the framing of postal contracts, we have no hesitation in saying that, so far as Lord DERBY, Sir JOHN PAKINGTON, and Lord EGLINTON are personally concerned, they appear to have been guided by pure and sincere motives throughout the whole transaction. Lord DERBY's evidence before the Committee is in perfect accord with this view. He thought the establishment of a Mail Packet Station on the West coast of Ireland of such great political and commercial importance—so clear an act of justice, that he did it irrespective of all minor considerations and official pros and cons. The Admiralty backed his views. The Post-office alone was doubtful, if not hostile. Into the causes of this we shall not pause to inquire.

Our rule in Ireland has been obligingly compared by a French newspaper with the rule of Naples over Sicily. Not exactly admitting this, we are inclined to call the originators and Directors of the Galway Line, and the persevering achievers of the contract, the social, political, and commercial emancipators of the sister island. Ireland had heretofore been deprived of her fair share of the passenger, postal, and carrying trade of the United Kingdom, and deprived of the advantages of her geographical position. It is not so now, and the "generosity" and fairness of other folks, which so long lay dormant, have been quickened by the determination of the Atlantic Royal Mail Steam Navigation Company to carry out their project, in spite of all temptations and difficulties. The temptations failed, and the difficulties have been happily conquered.

Towards the close of this month, it is expected that the contract will be inaugurated by the sailing of the first new steamer of the Company, under the most flattering auspices. The promised visit of the PRINCE OF WALES to America is an event which will mark this year as a most felicitous one in respect of increased, rapid, friendly, and commercial intercourse between Great Britain and the race who speak her language on the other side of the Atlantic.

In the midst of all this, it is a pity to observe the petty jealousy and rancour exhibited by some Irish minds towards those who have incurred the risk, the trouble, and the difficulties of the whole undertaking. Some of the Irish journals and shareholders seem to be seized with a rabidly economical fit, and exhibit an antagonistic spirit, which is characterized by equal ingratitude and meanness. If any of the Irish shareholders fancy that the whole management of the line could be carried on in Dublin, we do not envy them the hallucination. We must say, that the petty accusations, made by such real enemies of the undertaking, are unworthy, as they might be mischievous, were such views likely to be adopted on a large scale. Everything, at present, bids fair for the Atlantic Company, and it is too bad that a few disappointed persons should inflict pain and annoyance upon the real practical benefactors of their country, who have risked so much, worked so hard, and achieved so great an advantage for Ireland.

In conclusion, we would remark, that the writer of the article in the *Times* on packet contracts, which appeared two or three days since, entirely leaves out of view the difference between commercial and postal mail steamers, when he speaks favourably of the offers of old-established companies to carry the mails between this country and America for the price of the letters. Would the *Times* be satisfied with going backwards instead of forwards in our postal arrangements?

The money spent in subsidising mail steamers is but a trifle compared with the expense of the navy, and is paid back ten-fold into the British Exchequer. There is no doubt, on the part of the public, that the establishment of the Galway line is an immense advantage, not only to Ireland, but to the Empire, both home and colonial.

AGES OF TRANSITION—AND THE PRESENT IN PARTICULAR.

"THIS is an age of transition!" How frequently do we find these words recur in the leaders and mis-leaders of the press, daily, weekly, monthly. They are complacently repeated, as containing an adequate apology for the painful condition of present affairs. As such apology, moreover, they are put forth as of especial application. Let us inquire if these particulars and predicates are not too readily conceded.

May we not reasonably ask, for instance, is not every age an age of transition? Certainly. Then surely every age is entitled to the same apology? Again, we must answer, certainly. Away at once, then, go the speciality of its application to any age. Nevertheless, what is lost in this direction may be gained in another. What is denominated "transition," at any time, is an example of a universal principle which it may be worth while to investigate.

Is it, then, a law that all times are states of transition? It is; and further, that all things, too, are the same. For every object of our perception is in a state of growth, and becoming older every minute. We, likewise, are in the same state and age even while we look upon the face of nature. Our very perception itself is but an act of transition; a passage over from some relations of an object to others about to be presented, by connecting which we may constitute a total, or that approximation to an absolute aggregate, which we are willing to accept for an image of the whole. Man himself is, as it were, but a bridge of transition between a natural and a spiritual world. His various powers and faculties are but, so to speak, the steps of JACOB'S ladder, on which the messengers of Deity ascend and descend. That passage from the past eternity into temporal life which we call Birth is but a transition; so likewise is that which conveys man into the eternity of the future. Death is but the last change in a series of mutations; and the end is at all points correspondent to the beginning. As soon as we were born we began to die; in the day wherein we first partook of the fruit of temporal knowledge, we most assuredly justified the threatening; from that moment we were mortal, and mutability held dominion over the human being both in mind and body. The former is in perpetual flow; thought succeeds thought; experience enlarges; opinion supplants opinion; and the aims and purposes of the individual mind alter with the amount of its information and the conditions of its interest. The latter changes so much that the man has not a particle of the matter that composed the body of the child. By a series of minute transitions the tiny creature that could scarcely toddle from chair to chair has become a Titan who would pile Pelion on Ossa to attain the object of his ambition; and indeed can, by the force of limb and sinew, contend with some of the mightiest agencies and subdue the wildest of opponents.

So transitive is Nature in all her operations that the ancients resorted to a fable to account for the fact, and endeavoured to explain the mystery by a mythological fiction. They feigned that NEPTUNE had an old herdsman, named PROTEUS (whose appellation properly signifies "primary, oldest, or first"), who was a great diviner and interpreter of secrets, and who equally understood the past, the present, and the future. But they who wish to consult him had to bind him fast, when he, in his endeavours to escape, would assume all shapes—fiery, fluid, and animal—returning at length to his own. Lord BACON, in his famous explanation of these old mythologies, assures us that PROTEUS means the matter of the universe, that ever thus changes its form, and that his herd or flock signify "the several kinds of animals, plants, and minerals, in which matter appears to diffuse and spread itself." The custom ascribed to PROTEUS of telling over his herd of sea-calves at noon, and then going to sleep, is also similarly explained, viz., that "after having formed the several species of things, and as it were finished its task, matter seems to sleep and repose, without otherwise attempting to produce new ones." The "universe," according to the same authority, "with the common structures and fabrics of the creatures, is the face of matter, not under constraint, or as the flock wrought upon, and tortured, by human means. But if any skilful minister of Nature shall apply force to matter, and, by design, torture and vex it in order to its annihilation, it, on the contrary, being brought under this necessity, changes and transforms itself into a strange variety of shapes and appearances; but nothing but the power of the Creator can annihilate or truly destroy it; so that at length, running through the whole circle of transformations, and completing its period, it in some degree restores itself if the force be continued."

Not only our poetical philosopher, but our poets also have taken note of the perpetual state of change and transition in which all things are. SPENSER regards Change as a Titaness, who sought to obtain dominion even over the deities themselves. Pictures, accordingly, recur to his fancy of the moon and the vesper star, which mutability subjects to a temporary eclipse; whereupon complaint is made to Jove, and subsequently the whole appeal referred to Nature. The facts are stated. Even the Earth, "that only seems unmoved and permanent," is changed both in part and in general; while her tenants, man and beast, still vary their estate "from good to bad, from bad to worst of all." As to the Water, that is still visibly in ebb and flow, and the creatures in it range at random and vary their places of abode. Next, the Air; that is still more uncertain, changed every hour, now fair, now foul—now hot, now cold—now stormy, now calm. And last, the Fire,—

"Which, though it live for ever,
Nor can be quenched quite; yet, every day,
We see his parts, so soon as they do sever,
To lose their heat, and shortly to decay;

So makes himself his own consuming prey;
Nor any living creatures doth he breed;
But all that are of others bred, doth slay;
And with their death his cruel life doth feed,
Nought leaving but their barren ashes without seed."

Fantastical instances like these make science pleasant and easy, and philosophy "not harsh and crabbed, as dull fools suppose, but musical as is APOLLO's lute." And in the light of SPENSER's verse we can illustrate the transitions in nature, while he so tunefully describes the process by which fire converts to air, and air to water, and water to earth; meanwhile, spring is followed by summer, summer by autumn, and autumn by winter; each with its months so gradually changing into the other, that the alteration of the periods is scarcely marked till felt. Then there is the transition of day and night, how insensibly promoted by the silent Hours, who are "the porters of the gate of Heaven:"—

"And after all came Life; and, lastly, Death."

Nature settles the question in her own manner, acknowledging the unsteadfastness of things, but arguing that, nevertheless, they are not, being rightly weighed, truly changed from their first condition, but only by such transitions "dilate their being, and work their own perfection," and so, in fact, govern all the apparent mutations to which they are liable, by an unchangeable purpose and with irresistible power.

There would, therefore, at first sight, appear to be no special peculiarity in describing any age as an "age of transition." In a general sense, the saying is true of every time and moment of time. Yet there may be special forms of transition that distinguish one period from another, and mark it as extraordinary. Geology, for instance, refers us to transition-periods, and calls in "the testimony of the rocks" for corroboration of the fact. Human society may thus have its transition, basaltic and volcanic systems, the signs of which may serve nominally to qualify different epochs of social formation. Human character, also, may undergo different developments, and the individual exhibit different phases at certain epochs of existence. If, in the pursuit of truth, an individual mind feels itself at first in a labyrinth of great perplexity, alternately in states of darkness and light,—if at one time it is anxious for fame, and at another careless about it,—if now it feels itself behind the age, and now before it; if now it is solicitous for the world's reception of its discoveries, and now willing to await a better opportunity—if at one time it prides itself on its scientific wealth, and at another disregards its acquisitions in this kind as mere dress in contrast with the higher philosophy to which it may have attained, and abandon its former fields of endeavour altogether,—these points of transition must be accepted as "cardinal and prerogative" specialties in the different eras of a man's life, and every good biographer will dwell on them as replete with instructive and entertaining suggestion.

Nations have their biographies as well as individuals, and in the life of the former are distinguishable epochs, in which the greater changes to which they are liable are prominently marked and symbolically illustrated. That in which we live has indeed gained a special appellation. It is called an Intellectual Age, and its triumphs in the field of science attest the justice of the title. But its tendencies are to a more advanced stage. It is becoming, though it has not yet become, philosophical. The transcendentalism of the leading writers of America, and of our own leading journalists, is not to be questioned. The technicalities of the German systems are now frequently used, and sometimes even sportively applied. Meanwhile, practical politicians substitute ideal and social aims for the mere partisan objects of former periods. They seek to stamp the action of Reason upon the world, and govern it by juster laws and more charitable arrangements. Nor is it only that parties are held in abeyance in favour of national interests, but national interests are daily made to give way to cosmopolitan ones. The mind has evidently been placed on a higher elevation, and thus extended its horizon. Its eye now apprehends not only the prospects of a sect or of a people, but of the world.

And if this be an intellectual age, such must be the signs thereof, for the intellect itself is but a state or bridge of transition. It is the way over from the senses to the reason. The mind is travelling along that bridge even to this goal, and no other. The French had, as they called it, an age of Reason, but it was a crude anticipation and hasty caricature. It was an unconsidered and impatient embodiment, arbitrarily introduced, of an idea but imperfectly understood. The age of Reason is yet future. We perceive the precursors of its advent; but it has not yet come.

Our readers may have gathered from our above remarks, and especially from those cited with the authority of Lord Bacon's name, that there are two kinds of transition, the natural and the artificial. The "skilful minister of nature" may "apply force to matter, and by design torture and vex it." This same skilful minister is the Scientific Man, and his influence on the present age has been marvellous. Look at his mastery of steam! see how he has subjected the sunlight to his dominion! mark how the electric fluid obeys his bidding! He raises valleys and he lowers hills; and causes that (according to Mother SHIPTON's prophecies) the carriages in which we are conveyed shall go over the tops of the houses. Then notice the reactions that take place from these material changes; how they call out moral enterprise, and new social adaptations, so that society soon rights itself notwithstanding; and all the perils once dreaded from new experiments and new inventions fade and vanish like the dreams and shadows of the night before the dawning and increasing glory of the day. Where the slow-minded feared the "annihilation" of the social structure, the "necessity" to which the latter was "brought under" merely caused its transformation into

a variety of novel shapes and appearances in order to its ultimate restoration,—a result sure to arrive, provided the scientific force be long enough continued, and not miserably thwarted by the timid and tyrannical in high places.

The political conditions of society will readily accommodate themselves to its intellectual development. It needs no words to prove that intelligence is the great magician, and converts, PROSPERO-like, the barren coast into an enchanted island, and the world into a Paradise. Such are the wonders that it is hourly performing, that the tendency both of the wise and simple is to look forward hopefully, trusting in human perfectibility, and believing even in some future cosmical Utopia. We look for a new heavens and a new earth. The great heart of humanity indeed throbs with this sublime expectation. It desires a New Jerusalem, and undoubtedly it shall have it.

The fear that so terribly alarms the political mind is that we may be going too fast. This fear is unreasonable. A glance at history convinces us that the times and seasons are ordered. Providence brings about its ends, not only by mysterious means, but at leisure. Between each great epoch the intervals are measured by large cycles. Some five centuries elapse before the heaven succeeds in permeating the whole lump, and producing the desired "strike." Men are indeed impatient of these long intervals, and explain Scripture prophecy by shorter periods, antedating the millennium by more than a thousand years, and always announcing its advent as near at hand. It was so even in Apostolic times, and is so in these. But Providence is not in such haste as man. The "saints under the altar" still cry, "How long, how long?" Heaven, however, still proceeds slowly and surely; laying the bases carefully of an empire that, when established, is designed to last for ages and ages.

But pain is always an accompaniment of periods of transition. This pain we are always suffering in some degree. We are always in a state of transit. But people take pleasure in travelling, though it does put them to trouble and expense. In fact, that word "pain" is a most equivocal vocable. One poet, who was always complaining of his sufferings and wrongs, tells us that "pain and pleasure are two names for one feeling." There can be no doubt that they are merely corresponding opposites, and that we must accept either as an inevitable law, applicable to all conditions of the individual and all states of society. The pain, moreover, of a crisis is less than the perpetual torment of the small changes that are associated with every minute of the day. An unexpected earthquake, though it ruins all, is less fatal to human peace than the daily expectation of bankruptcy to the merchant who cannot make headway against ill-luck. Away, then, with such repinings. If we justly denominate the age wherein we live as an "age of transition," let us accept it with philosophical equanimity as a "great fact," and endeavour to get abreast of it, and the society which it designates. But as all wholes are composed of parts, the best counsel we can give is perhaps to advise each individual to pay proper attention to the more minute transitions which necessarily occur in his own life and being. The great transition from nothing into birth, which all have suffered, is beyond the control of the sufferer; but the final transition into a life to come is one for which we should all be prepared. It is a grand idea—a sublime truth—that we must all pass from Time into Eternity. Let each be profoundly impressed with the immortal significance of his individual destiny. It is nothing less than this; and with it the whole world presents truly nothing that may be justly regarded as its parallel. Every man is marching onward and upward with this aim, whether conscious or not; better, however, that he should cultivate a consciousness of it than accomplish his final transition in the dark.

INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1862.

THE Council of the Society of Arts, at the opening of the present session in November last, announced their intention to take such steps as were deemed necessary to promote the holding of a Universal Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations in London in 1862. The Council, as the promoters of the first International Exhibition held in Hyde Park in 1851, in proposing to hold a second in 1862, are merely fulfilling the intention which was received by the Royal Commissioners as the conditions on which they were appointed trustees of the surplus funds. The Society of Arts, in order that the Exhibition of 1862 should become a reality, proposed a few weeks since to raise a guarantee fund of £250,000, and little has since been heard of it, beyond an occasional report that the fund was progressing favourably. We are now informed that a guarantee has been obtained in excess of that sum, and contributors continue to send in their names most freely, and for sums which in the aggregate amount to from five to ten thousand pounds daily. There is little if any doubt that the fund will shortly amount to not less than half a million of money.

Surely no stronger evidence can be desired of the degree of support which the Exhibition of 1862 is destined to receive, if manufacturers and men engaged in commerce thus readily and largely come forward to support it, in its preliminary stage. That such support is natural, looking at the extended basis upon which the commerce and industry of this country must in future be carried on, if it is to compete successfully upon a free-trade basis with the industry of the world, few would venture to deny. England is no longer able to buy up exclusive intelligence of the requirements of foreign markets. In this age of railroads, steamboats, and telegraphs, her seaboard no longer enables her to surpass her neighbours in rapidity of supply. England, if she is to maintain her position as a manu-

facturing and commercial country, must in future do so by increasing and perfecting herself in steam power, and mechanical as well as artistic skill;—and this she is doing.

The direction in which these powers must be applied will in future be most readily ascertained by periodical exhibitions, in which her productions will be ranged side by side with those of her foreign competitors. But our intention is not now to enter upon the discussion of the question of whether Exhibitions are wanted, and how far England would be able to compete with her rivals in trade, but rather to inform our readers that the Society, having already secured the necessary funds to cover the costs of the proposed Exhibition, has taken the next step for ensuring the holding of future Exhibitions. The Society has, we understand, applied to the Royal Commissioners for the necessary site upon which to erect the building, a portion of which it proposes shall be of a permanent character; and in order to justify the necessary expenditure, it requires, and will no doubt obtain, a ninety-nine years' lease of the sixteen acres of land which appear to be reserved by the Commissioners for the purpose of exhibitions, a reservation most judicious, for, unless the land purchased by them out of the surplus funds of the Exhibition of 1851 is thus applied, it is difficult to see in what way they could publicly justify themselves before the contributors of the £67,000 of money subscribed and paid by the public in 1849 to 1850, and which forms a portion of the surplus of which they are the trustees, in entering upon a land speculation.

The Society of Arts, in 1851, forbore to press its claims for a portion of the profits to which, as the originators of the Exhibition, they were in equity fully entitled, and the Royal Commission bearing in mind that fact, will doubtless be most anxious to co-operate with and assist the Society in carrying to a successful issue the plans which it has now put forward.

M. GUIZOT'S MEMOIRS.*

IN dealing with the subject of public instruction, M. Guizot insists much on its laic character, as qualifying the existing state of intelligence and science. The clergy no longer possess undisputed control of individual minds. Lay-students now cultivate the field of moral science not less effectively. M. Guizot states that in France they have almost entirely appropriated mathematics and natural philosophy. Learning has become secular. Greater liberty has been required and acquired by the masters of thought in return for the new powers they had placed at the disposal of society. It is the opinion of M. Guizot, that intelligence and science will never again become essentially ecclesiastical. Never again can they be subjected to direct and positive authority. Governments must trust to simple influence, and should seek to draw towards them the powers devoted to literary labour, with the leaders of science and literature.

The possibility of establishing in England a Minister of Public Instruction was debated in 1848. Our public seminaries, elementary schools, colleges, and universities were passed in review. These were so many accomplished facts,—existing things. The proposed institutions are as yet only organized on paper, and might never rise above it. The question whether they would increase, fructify, and last, could not be satisfactorily answered. The variety and isolation of our existing establishments ensures the liberty to which they owe their origin. The religious element in them was also defended, on the ground that the excellence of intellectual instruction consisted in its intimate connection with moral development. In France no such argument is possible; for there the ancient establishments of public instruction have disappeared,—the donors and the property, the corporations and the endowments. There, accordingly, a general system, founded and supported by the State, is an absolute necessity. The legislators of France regard public instruction as M. de Talleyrand regarded it,—as “a power which embraces everything, from the games of infancy to the most imposing *fêtes* of the nation; everything calls for a creation in this branch; its essential characteristic ought to be *universality*, whether in persons or things. The State must govern theological studies as well as all others. Evangelical morality is the noblest present which the Deity has bestowed on man;—the French nation does honour to itself in rendering this homage.”

Such are the distinctive traits which distinguish France and England in this particular. This subject of public instruction, and the question of education, continues to be debated in the present volume. They run like golden threads through the entire fabric of the book. We shall, therefore, select them for the topics of this article.

It was found difficult in France to replace the departed establishments. It is true the Institute was founded, but there was no great and effective combination of public teaching. Napoleon, notwithstanding the creation of Lyceums, recognised the difficulty. He felt that, in the present day, the educational department should be laical, social, connected with family interests and property, and intimately united, save only in their special mission, with civil order and the mass of their fellow-citizens. With this sentiment, he founded the university. It was once connected with the Church; but when M. Guizot accepted the Ministry of Public Instruction, he required, as a Protestant, that it should be separated from that of worship, and demanded for it its natural privileges and limits. But the Fine Arts were not sufficiently regarded. “Art and literature,” says M. Guizot, “are naturally and necessarily linked together. It is only by this intimate and habitual intercourse that they can be

assured of maintaining their suitable and elevated character,—the worship of the Beautiful, and its manifestation in the eyes of men. If Leonardo da Vinci and Michael-Angelo had not been scholars, passing their lives in the learned world of their age, their influence, and even their genius could never have displayed themselves with such pure and powerful effect.”

M. Guizot has an entire chapter devoted to “Elementary Education.” A force is comprised in national education which will not suffer itself to be strangled, and which, therefore, the Government sought to turn to its own advantage. Between 1821 and 1826, eight royal decrees, countersigned by M. Corbier, minister of the Interior, authorized in fourteen departments religious associations, honestly devoted to elementary instruction, and thus established, in point of fact, a certain number of new schools. The great question at last was, whether such instruction should be compulsory, should be an obligation imposed by law on parents, and supported by specific penalties in case of neglect, as adopted in Prussia and in the greater portion of the German States. In England no such compulsion is even thought of; it is, however, practised in the United States of America. M. Guizot adhered to the English practice. Then came the question of free primary instruction; but on this there could be no doubt. The State, says M. Guizot, is bound to offer elementary instruction to all families, and to give it to those who have not the means of paying for it. Within certain limits the sentiment of ambition should be encouraged, aspiring spirits should be honoured. The ambition for intelligence should be provided for; but the education of the teachers themselves is an important point. Hence the system of primary normal schools.

In elementary schools, the sentiment of religion ought to be habitually present. The public, however, dreaded above all things the influence of the priests and of the central power. But M. Guizot adheres to his proposition, that direction is required for instruction, and a restraint within due bounds, which only the Church and State can impose. The education of the people has become an absolute necessity; the more expedient therefore, in his opinion, that it should be regulated by constituted authority. He was resisted by Count de la Montalembert and the Abbé Lacordaire, who opened a public school without requiring any authority from the minister of Public Instruction, the head master of the University. They were accused and condemned for their presumption, but their trial and defence made a sensation—very inconvenient to M. Guizot, who has no very gracious terms for the Abbé, whom he suspects of having been possessed by an inward demon. It is somewhat amusing to see how heartily a man of talent can abuse a man of genius. There are also some interesting remarks on M. Auguste Comte.

As minister of Public Instruction, there can be no doubt that M. Guizot pursued an upright and conscientious course, as became a Protestant and *savant*. One of his merits consists in the importance which he attached to historical studies. Special professors were named in the University for history and geography. Though security was taken against the introduction of politics, historical teaching nevertheless became suspected. M. Guizot, however, pursued his object with ardour, and gave his influence to all similar undertakings. Thus he lent his assistance at once to the Society of the History of France, whose labours have been of immense importance to the archaeologist. The latter half of this volume is occupied with historical documents which the student will find eminently useful.

The translation is well accomplished by Mr. Cole, whose style has all the elegance of the original.

GODWIN'S HISTORY OF FRANCE.*

HERE we have a History of France written by an American, such a work being more wanted in the United States than in this country, where the French language is better cultivated. The work is projected on an extended scale. The large, closely printed volume of nearly five hundred pages before us, is occupied exclusively with Ancient Gaul, and each future volume will have its own period or cycle, thus dealing fully and scientifically with its own peculiar topic. The style of the writer is eloquent and semi-philosophic, and suggests sometimes where it does not express the *rationale* of the facts that he relates. One of these glimpses into the reason of things is contained in the statement, that while ancient Gaul was well organized within and well defended outwardly, yet “it was not wholly secured by the mountain and river barriers of its eastern lines from the two mighty and opposing forces of the ancient world, Italy and Germany.” In this fragment of a sentence, we have the history of France foreshadowed. Mr. Godwin adds in a note, that “it is not more national vanity in the French, I think, which leads them to consider their country as the focus of Europe. History will quite justify everything that is claimed by Guizot on this head.” Thus, also, in regard to the extent of territory, we find that ancient Gaul was one-fourth larger than modern France. “From the old geographical Gaul, we must deduct a part of Sardinia, formerly the Duchy of Savoy, the Cantons of Switzerland, the Rhenish provinces west of the Rhine, the whole of Belgium, and part of Holland, in order to form France. For a while, under the Empire of Napoleon, the French recovered the ancient limits of their fathers, with something beyond, but they have never succeeded, much as they yearn for it and talk about it, in making the Rhine a permanent boundary.” Here we have the past and future of the French empire significantly indicated. These statements

* *Memoirs to Illustrate the History of my Time.* By F. GUIZOT. Translated by J. W. COLE. Vol. III. Richard Bentley.

* *The History of France.* By PARK GODWIN. Vol. I. “Ancient Gaul.” London: S. Low, Son, and Co.; New York: Harper and Brothers.

involve ideas; and men have already begun to "make war" for ideas; and these are births the throes of which are now actually troubling the world.

An American historian is more likely to deal with these matters impartially than an English one. Mr. Park Godwin appears, indeed, to be an honest and sincere inquirer. He has a happy knack, too, in characterising his authorities. Thus he says of Julius Caesar, that it was his "peculiar fortune to reveal to mankind by his conquests the ancestors of the three greatest modern nations, France, Germany, and Britain," and that he "penetrated Gaul with his eyes as well as with his sword. The most competent observer of his age, both by native endowment and the accidents of his career, he still remains our best though not exclusive authority." We gather from examples of this sort, that Mr. Godwin is an author whose *forte* it is to write pregnant sentences, teeming with meaning, and comprehending large issues expressed in a few carefully chosen and significant words.

Mr. Godwin is also a cautious historian. Having described the ancient nations of which Gaul consisted, he prudently observes, that though it might be interesting, it would be fruitless to inquire into the origin of the several races, or the time and manner of their arriving in Gaul. The theory, he adds, "accepted by many ethnologists, which represents the whole of Europe as having been peopled from the East, first by Finnic, then Pelasgic, then Keltic, then Teutonic, and then Slavonic races, is, perhaps, speculatively satisfactory, but it cannot be adopted in history. For, in fact, history cannot know anything of the beginnings of nations; its sphere is exclusively that of progress and development, and, while it acknowledges with cordial sympathy the services of archaeology, and rejoices particularly in those beautiful labours of the science of language which have unfolded the analysis of the sacred tongues of Upper Asia—the Sanscrit and the Zend—with the European dialects, it yet preserves a studied caution amid the half-lights and false lights of all unrecorded eras."

We remark in Mr. Godwin a similar caution in regard to the Druids, whose eastern derivation he appears on the whole to grant. He admits the many analogies which learned men discover between their supposed doctrines and rites and those of certain Asiatic nations; yet at the same time points attention to the differences, which are quite as many as the resemblances, and scarcely, he insists, justify the identification of Druidism with any other known form of religion. "Even," says he, "were the analogies stronger and more numerous than they are, it might still be plausibly contended that the faith of the Keltic races was an indigenous product, springing primarily out of the depths of their own hearts, and modified in a slight degree afterwards by the various Phœnician, Carthaginian, Greek, and Roman influences, with which we know the Gauls were assailed."

We may regard Mr. Godwin, therefore, we think, as a tolerably safe guide through legendary and archaeological labyrinths. It is true that the subject of Roman Gaul fills him with sublime ideas, and makes him grandiloquent in contemplating "the whole wonderful people cradled by the seven hills," and that Italy which he regards as "the nursing mother of all the nations of the globe." But he is not blinded to the evils of her dominion, right early manifested. Rome presented "a society thoroughly permeated by elavery, of which despotism was but the crowning and poisonous flower." Her "religion consisted of a vile mass of capricious, impure, and sanguinary rites; and in which the contempt for woman had almost dissolved the family tie, and bred the rankest contagions in the very heart of domestic life." Rome was a hot-bed, "where an intenser life had rapidly exhausted the native vigour of the soil, and supplied its place with a luxuriant compost." It was "towards Rome that all the peculiar luxuries, vices, crimes, sorceries, and superstitions of all the earth had tended." Here, again, we see in a concise statement the germ of a great development, by which the history of the world from that time to the present has been materially and spiritually affected.

Christianity was early planted in Gaul—at a period much earlier than that of Constantine, when it had become corrupt. At that triumphant moment (to quote our author's words, with certain needless modifications), when the new religious power was about to ascend the throne of the world, it was neither as a faith nor as an institution, the same as it appears to have been in its primitive age. The essence, or the fundamental principles of Christianity were, as they ever will be, the same; but the human mind, in its conception of principles, is ever liable to prodigious transmutations. And Christianity was not a scheme for the miraculous conversion of men without consent of their understanding and hearts; it was not a vast and inflexible system of superstition, to be imposed by authority and propagated by terror and force, but it was pre-eminently a spiritual religion, addressed to the free affections and the independent reason of mankind, and implying in its very conditions as such, that it might be rejected, or perverted, or only half received. It was accordingly subject to a variety of changes, the successive steps of which are noted on the page of history. In the age of Constantine, the benignant Gospel had come to be considered as some talismanic passport to the unimaginable bliss of a future state. In a word, the purest of religions had suffered the fate of all—it had become for a while a superstition, but only that, in the end, it might transcend all superstitions, by force of its original purity.

The world, or that part of it which was called the Empire of the West, had now to be divided into two prefectures—that of Italy and that of Gaul; the latter comprising Gaul proper, Spain, and Britain. Here may be said to begin the political life of Gaul. Its inhabitants were divided into classes, the third consisting of the mechanics,

or free artisans of the towns, and the small possessors of land in the country. This was organised into corporations of the different trades. Mr. Godwin doubts whether any substantial change had been effected among the rural population of Gaul in consequence of the Roman conquest. "They held to the condition of the slave without being of his kind, and to the condition of the freeman without enjoying all his rights." The upper classes were enormously rich, and devoted to a sumptuous and idle indulgence. They passed their days alternately in their fine city palaces and in their country villas, constructed in the Roman fashion, amid the picturesque or grand scenes of nature. Of the seventeen famous cities of the world, five belonged to Gaul, namely—Trèves, Aclès, Toulouse, Narbonne, and Bordeaux, which last was even then celebrated for its wines. Abandoned to gaieties and festivals, few traces are to be discerned of any serious occupation, or of any deep and absorbing general interest among them, although the age was a most stirring and calamitous one, when the wild squadrons of Germany swept the plains, and the empire rocked and groaned like a vessel struck by the tempests. Some of the nobles, though, are confessed to have been men of mind,—philosophers, litterati, and poets. One Vectius, for instance, is described as "a monk, not under the gown, but under the tunic of the warrior," who frequently read the Scriptures, especially at his repasts, "partaking at once of the nutriment of the soul and of the body."

Into the subject of the literature and science of Gaul at this and subsequent periods Mr. Godwin enters with an eloquent force which will render his book attractive. Gaul abounded in schools in which the Arts were taught, and Christianity was not without its rhetoricians. Mr. Godwin traces it through its Hebrew, Greek, and Latin forms, and shows himself capable of an extensive range of thought.

The historian then pursues his fruitful theme through its remaining phases;—as, firstly, Roman-German Gaul; and, secondly, German Gaul. The advances of the Teutonic world upon the empire are distinctly traced, and the learning applicable to the point, as far as possible, exhausted.

The downfall of the empire is depicted in suitable terms of dignity. "The great sun," Mr. Godwin writes, "which for so many centuries had illumined and dazzled the world, was set, and the nations were left to grope in the twilight of its once effulgent day." Chlodwig the Great is then celebrated as the real founder of the Frankish monarchy. With the Merovingian dynasty the Roman element retires, and leaves Gaul entirely to the German influence. This period comprises more than half of the seventh century, and extends to the middle of the ninth. And here the author closes his first volume. The empire of the Franks had dissolved. But a new vision had disclosed itself. The Church remained. Christianity would not recede. The empire of the great Karl was to become a civilizing inspiration of the West. The fragments into which his empire split were not the broken and useless pieces of a magnificent fabric overthrown, but themselves the corner-stones of more imperial structures. "The enforced unity of Roman contrivance was shattered for ever, but the seeds of vital nationalities were sown, and already Italy, Germany, and France sprouted out of the earth."

So concludes a volume which treats a great subject with some majesty of diction and some profundity of thought, and which reflects considerable credit on the historic genius of America.

TALES—TRANSLATED AND ORIGINAL.

OF all nations the Northern are the most celebrated for their numerous traditions and fabulous conceptions. Without doubt the genius of these peoples is peculiarly adapted to the fabrication of ingenious myths and allegorical pictures. Their writings of this class abound in such singular vagaries of fancy, such novel flights of imagination, and extraordinary figures of speech, as justly entitle them to a foremost rank in compositions of the kind. Among these fantastic celebrities Herr Hans Andersen occupies a prominent position. Those who remember that master-piece of one of the most subtle and brilliant of imaginations, the "Improvisatore," will be at no loss to account for the world-wide reputation of its author, and the extensive circulation of his inimitable productions, another volume of which is now presented to the English public. This volume is entitled the "Sandhills of Jutland," being a collection of fabulous stories descriptive of events supposed to take place in that wild and thinly-populated region. All these tales possess that strange fascination for which Herr Andersen's works are so remarkable. The soul of the reader is gradually infused with a portion of the author's divine inspiration, and he feels himself borne onwards along the current of ideas as familiarly as though they had originally generated in his own mind, instead of being the emanations of a directly foreign source. This power of compelling others to enter so completely into the spirit of our own thoughts, sensations, and emotions, belongs to but few writers of fiction—but amongst these few Herr Andersen stands conspicuous. The rich mine of his

* *The Sandhills of Jutland*. By HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN, Author of the "Improvisatore," &c. Richard Bentley.

Chapters on Wives. By Mrs. ELLIS, Author of "Mothers of Great Men." Richard Bentley.

Alice Lisle: a Tale of Puritan Times. By the Rev. R. KING, B.A., Author of "Angels' Work," "Singers of the Sanctuary," &c. J. H. and Jas. Parker.

Lady Goodchild's Fairy Ring. Houlston and Wright.

Chilcote Park; or, The Sisters. By the Author of "Likes and Dislikes." John W. Parker and Son.

fertile brain appears to be inexhaustible, and all the tales in the volume before us not only possess a symbolical meaning, but are enriched with such a variety of images and fanciful interpolations as render them the most delicious and enchanting reading. The infallibility of the true spirit of Christianity in overcoming all the evils of life is the moral couched beneath all these elegant little fables. Of these the "Mud King's Daughter" is perhaps the most beautiful and suggestive. The following is the line of argument pursued:—

The King of Egypt falling sick, he is recommended by his physician to touch of certain plant which grows in a deep morass near the sandhills of Jutland. His daughter, the princess, accompanied by two female companions under the likeness of swans, forthwith undertake a journey to the north of Europe, in order to procure the medicinal herb. Arrived at their destination, her treacherous friends first make themselves mistresses of the princess's magical disguise, and then leave her to perish in the morass. Some time after, a newly-born infant is discovered reclining on the petals of a water-lily springing out of this same morass, and is conveyed, under peculiar circumstances, to the dwelling of the Viking's wife, by whom it is adopted. This little interloper is the daughter of the Mud-king and his Egyptian bride. The Viking's wife speedily becomes aware that her *protégée* is under the influence of some powerful charm, in virtue of which she becomes every night transformed into the semblance of a frog, and does not resume her natural shape till the succeeding morning. When the young lady is about sixteen years old, a Christian priest is brought captive to her foster-father's castle, and is delivered by our heroine during the period of one of her hideous metamorphoses; for it should here be mentioned that, though during the day-time, in the pride of her youth and loveliness, she exhibits a disposition malicious, savage, and ferocious, quite the opposite is the case during the long, tedious hours of her affliction;—then her heart is docile and tender as a lamb. The priest, in return for her act of generosity, resolves to release her from her purgatorial state; he accordingly baptizes her in the name of Jesus Christ, marking her several times with the sign of the cross. It is not, however, until the sign is received inwardly as well as outwardly, in the true spirit of Christian charity and faith, that it acquires any potency in dissolving the terrible charm under which her existence groans. Once enshrined in her heart the knowledge and love of the Redeemer, then her disguise falls off like a worn-out garment, and she steps forth into the world an uncontaminated and true-hearted woman. Receiving a visitation from her ghostly confessor after the period of his natural existence, she begs that he will accord her a momentary glimpse into the state of departed spirits; her wish is granted, and she is borne upwards beyond the vault of heaven for the space (according to her finite calculations) of about three minutes. There she is met by a sight so dazzling as to be entirely undistinguishable. Upon her return to earth she finds everything around her changed—the old faces have passed away, and a new generation has sprung up, as it were, by magic; centuries have rolled by during her short acquaintance with the Infinite. She at once comprehends the truth—a thousand years in time is but as the space of three minutes in eternity.

All the tales are of this fanciful and allegorical description, and a decided treat is in store for the reader who shall devote a few of his leisure hours to their perusal.

A series of tales, by Mrs. Ellis, entitled "Chapters on Wives," are deserving of the highest praise. The authoress informs us in the preface, that it is her intention in the present volume to exhibit a little of the stern romance of married life, and draw a few vivid pictures of the fortitude and heroism of woman in her double capacity of wife and mother, a subject, she says, not popular with novelists in general, who hold it as a maxim that all romance ceases at the matrimonial altar. Mrs. Ellis has proved this opinion to be a fallacy; and in a collection of beautiful and unaffected stories has shown how deep an interest lies hidden beneath the every-day routine and common-place duties of wedded existence. It is not till after marriage that the higher capabilities of woman are thoroughly developed, and her character assumes anything like consistency or settled tendencies, whether for good or evil. Once she sets her foot within the charmed circle her *real* life begins, and opportunities gradually present themselves for the awakening and starting into life of all her dormant faculties—she becomes a different being. Of course every wife has to undergo a probationary course before she can fully comprehend the responsibilities entailed upon her by her new office; then her nobler qualities (if noble qualities she possesses) assert their superiority over all selfish feelings, and she stands discovered to her husband and the world in her true nature. Nothing could be more artistic than Mrs. Ellis's treatment of her subject; her heart is evidently in her work, and this, perhaps, constitutes one of the chief charms of this lady's writings. We have merely to add that these tales are worthy the reputation of the authoress.

"Alice Lisle," by the Rev. R. King, is an ably written and decidedly interesting story. The scene is laid in the reign of Charles I., extending over the protectorate of Oliver Cromwell; and the author betrays an intimate acquaintance with the different contending factions and antagonistic principles which agitated that stormy period of English history. The author's clerical education has enabled him to enter into his subject with more than usual clearness and perspicuity; and though perhaps a little prejudiced in favour of puritanical discipline and rigid self-denial, his conclusions as to the relative merits of Cavalier and Roundhead are generally correctly and impartially drawn. The story is simple. Alice Lisle, the wife of a staunch puritan, after escaping, by a timely retreat into Holland accompanied by her husband, the danger of the

"Restoration," ultimately returns to England, and falls a victim to the remorseless cruelty of the justly execrated "Judge Jeffreys." This little work will well reward the reader for the time expended on its perusal.

"Lady Goodchild's Fairy Ring" is composed of a series of tales, adapted to the slender comprehension of childhood, in all of which the element of magic and supernatural agency is conspicuously brought forward. These stories are of a decidedly superior order to those usually compiled for the benefit of the rising generation, being all written with the utmost delicacy and skill, and each containing a most instructive and unexceptionable moral. Amongst those which we would especially recommend to the consideration of our juvenile brethren, are "The Little Red Man," "Father Barbel," and "The Sea King's Bride."

"Chilcote Park," by the author of "Likes and Dislikes," is a very innocent story, perfectly simple in all its details, and evidently written with no higher ambitious object than the transmission (to all who shall accept, and profit by the same) of a highly commendable and instructive moral. The heroines are two sisters, Agnes and Bertha, both orphans, and the possessors of considerable fortunes. Bertha, the younger, after contracting herself to her cousin Francis, exhibits unmistakable signs of the ravages of consumption, a tendency to which disease her friends have prognosticated from her cradle. After a hurried marriage, she is taken abroad by her husband, with a view to the renovation of her shattered health, and dies in Algiers. The widowed Francis, in the intensity of his grief, falls an easy prey to the machinations of a Jesuit priest, by whom he is induced to enter into the communion of the church of Rome; and he ultimately proceeds as a missionary of that faith to China. Agnes, thus left to her own resources, takes up her abode with her half-brother and his wife, one Mr. and Mrs. Burgess, whose cupidity is speedily excited by the prospect of having the entire management of their relative's fortune. In order to accomplish this object, they take advantage of a temporary aberration of intellect, the natural consequence of a violent attack of brain-fever, to incarcerate the poor girl in a lunatic asylum. From this disagreeable position she is ultimately relieved by the magnanimous devotion of an old admirer, Dr. Martin, to whom she ultimately intrusts her happiness, after having, in the bitter school of adversity, worked out the redemption of her own wayward heart, and conned the universal lesson that every man and woman, to be truly happy, must have some object in existence; and that the noblest of all objects, especially to a woman of wealth and independence, is the welfare and happiness of others. Thus, from out her sorest need, she extracts the precious seeds of future prosperity and peace.

Though written in the simplest and most unassuming form, the useful moral contained in this little volume will be a secure recommendation to the public.

CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE.*

MR. TIMBS has already so pleasantly acquainted us with so many Curiosities of Science, that we are prepared to welcome a second series with peculiar pleasure. It commences with the subject of alchemy, and treats it with a more decorous respect than is generally extended towards this doubtful pursuit. It was not always, however, treated with contempt. Friar Bacon believed, and Sir Isaac Newton made experiments in it. Mr. Timbs here states a fact which is not generally known, though generally asserted by the mystics, and particularly by Law. Among Sir Isaac's papers large extracts out of Jacob Behmen's works were found, written with his own hand. Law states that he had learned from undoubted authority that, in a former part of his life, Sir Isaac was led into a search of the Philosopher's Tincture, and with Dr. Newton, his relative, set up furnaces; and that they were for several months at work in quest of the Tincture. The substantial truth of the statement is proved by Dr. Newton's own letter, in which he says: "About six weeks at spring, and at y fall, y^e fire in the laboratory scarcely was out, which was well furnished with chymical materials, as bodies, receivers, heads, crucibles, &c., which was made very little use of, y^e crucibles excepted, in which he fused his metals. He would sometimes, though very seldom, look into an old mouldy book which lay in his laboratory. I think it was entitled 'Agricola de Metallis;' the transmuting of metals being his chief design, for which purpose antimony was a great ingredient. Near his laboratory was his garden . . . His brick furnaces, *pro re nata*, he made and altered himself, without troubling a bricklayer."

Mr. Timbs has done his best to exhaust this subject by the numerous notices, including the latest and earliest periods, which he has bestowed on it. He then proceeds to modern chemistry, and the great discoveries in it, which are such invaluable aids to civilization. The phenomena of Allotropism have a similarity with those of alchemy—they indicate, not, certainly, the transmutation of metals into gold, but transmutation, nevertheless, of a certain kind. Much knowledge of non-metallic elements might be gained, if we could succeed in obtaining hydrogen and nitrogen in the liquid or solid form. Hitherto they have resisted all efforts, though hydrogen, in many of its relations, acts as though it were a metal. Mr. Faraday has long been of opinion that the various forms under which the forces of matter are made manifest have a common origin, and are convertible one into another.

* Things not generally known familiarly Explained. *Curiosities of Science. Second Series. A Book for Old and Young.* By JOHN TIMBS, F.S.A. Kent & Co.

It is not our intention, however, nor would it be possible, to go over the various matters which are registered in this instructive volume. We can only record the general headings. In addition to those we have already noted, there are the "Chemistry of Metals," "Poisons," "Hippocrates," "Physiological Chemistry," "Chemistry of Food," "The Laboratory," "Chemical Manufactures," "General Science," "A Chapter on Chloroform," and an appendix, with a complete index.

In all respects, this new volume is equal to its predecessors—in some, superior, particularly with regard to the completeness with which the different topics are treated. Mr. Timbs has educated his readers, it may be presumed, to an advanced point, and can now afford to deal with his argument in a graver and fuller style than formerly. In some instances, he has, indeed, been exhaustive. We commend this book unreservedly to the patronage of the public.

MISCELLANEOUS BOOKS.*

THE merits of Mr. Abbott as a story writer are so widely known and appreciated, that we may predict considerable popularity for the "Stories of Rainbow and Lucky" among youthful readers. The genial character, the natural action, and genuine tone of truthfulness and humour which characterise these stories, are the sources of their power to please and interest. There is, likewise, the great charm of instruction as well as amusement in these tales, yet the instruction is so skilfully interwoven with and subordinated to the purposes of amusement, that the young reader will imperceptibly, and without the slightest disposition to reject it, imbibe the fine moral lesson which they inculcate. No one is conscious of the presence of the oxygen while he inhales and is invigorated by the air he breathes. In this manner does the clever story-teller, while he endeavours to amuse and delight, mix up with his narrative wholesome and pleasant draughts from the cup of justice and humanity, and put in this way the instruction is highly acceptable, and of course makes the narrative very popular. Finding as we have said, this method of teaching successfully adopted by Mr. Abbott, we recommend the more confidently to our readers the little volume of stories of "Rainbow and Lucky."

As it is superfluous to expatiate upon the merits of the "Vicar of Wakefield," a tale which everybody reads, we have only to draw attention to the surpassing excellence of this edition of it by Messrs. Griffiths and Farren. It is printed and bound in the best style, and the illustrations by Mr. Absolon, the well-known and skilful artist, are deserving of all praise. The adherence to the letter of the first edition is also in character, and is itself a decided attraction.

"The Dawn of Love" is an elegant little volume of sonnets, by Calder Eliot. They exhibit considerable elegance of diction and great delicacy of sentiment, and we have no doubt that their peculiar charm of music and sweetness of thought will gain for them much favour among poetical readers. They are dedicated to the surviving sons of Burns.

Messrs. Smith, Elder and Co. have published a new edition of the interesting story of "Kathie Brande." This cheap edition of a good fireside history should find a large number of readers.

"Pass and Class," an Oxford guide-book, is an able and complete little work on the course of education pursued at Oxford. It will, no doubt, be valuable to the student on commencing his career in that great seat of learning. To others it will afford a perfect idea of the sort of training which a man undergoes in the Oxford Colleges, in order to fit and qualify him for eminent and useful positions in life.

We have received the second edition of "The Divine Life in Man," consisting of a series of sermons by the Rev. James Baldwin-Brown, minister of Claylands Chapel, Clapham Road. These sermons are characterized by a healthy religious spirit, and great earnestness of thought and purpose.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

SPECIAL.

HANOVER, June 12th, 1860.

THERE are certain indications of a strong divergence of opinion in the Liberal party, or rather say liberal thinkers of this country—a party in the English sense does not exist. We may be said to have now two sets of thinkers or wishers: the one, which I may term Unionists, the other Guild-abolitionists. The Unionists would have a union by any means,—war or revolution; the Abolitionists care not so much about a nominally political union of all the States under a central authority as the abolition of all restrictions upon labour, trade, and settlement. The sentiments of the Union-

ists were expressed in the extract which I gave last week of M. VON BENNINGSEN'S speech in the Hanoverian Chamber;—those of the abolitionists are that the idea of a union by violent means is altogether chimerical, and that the efforts of the Liberals ought to be exclusively directed to the abolition of the guild regulations, the passport system, and the introduction of what they term "Freizügigkeit," that is, the right of settling in any country of Germany without naturalisation or permission of the authorities. I must confess the abolitionists have my sympathy, for they have a tangible object in view, and have already effected several branches in the guild and police system. It is a question, too, which goes home to the great body of peasants and mechanics, who can easily comprehend it, and therefore come forward in support of it. The Unionists, as represented by the National Association, can only obtain adherents among the rich and educated; the common people hold aloof with the most phlegmatic indifference. Of this the Unionists loudly complain; but what can be expected when the German working man is under the tutelage of the police in his own locality, and finds himself treated like a foreigner in every other locality of the Vaterland? The great Union question is not a personal affair, like the right to move, settle, and trade. Even if the union could be effected as the National Association desire, it could be of little benefit to the people, unless the whole system of local legislation were overthrown, unless the shackles were completely cast off which tie the German to his native place. The cry for a United Germany resounds from all sides through the press, but, ridiculous enough, those persons who exclaim the loudest against the selfishness of the princes, because they will not sacrifice their hereditary sovereignties for the general welfare, are themselves possessed of the most impolitic and unsocial of privileges. The writers of Germany are constantly bewailing the unpatriotic readiness with which a German throws aside his nationality and becomes an American, a Frenchman, an Englishman, or Russian, as the case may be. But what right has Germany to claim the love, and perhaps the blood of her sons, when she denies them the common rights of man, the first conditions of social existence? If they were excluded from such rights and conditions by all the rest of the world, it would be another matter, but they can obtain them freely in greater, wealthier, and more powerful countries. Those rights of man which are denied to the German in his own country, he can have even in that country of France which his tyrants would teach him to hate and fear. The German can freely range from one end of France to the other, and settle wherever he thinks he can best gain his livelihood; there he can buy and sell, there he can own land, and there he can marry without an insulting police certificate, which is more than he can do in the freest localities of his Vaterland. The instinctive desire to found a home, and freely gain his bread by his own unfettered labour, must be nearer and dearer to the millions of Germany than the more ideal wish of a united Germany and the retention of the Rhine provinces. The journals are constantly whining about the never-ending stream of emigration to foreign lands, where Germans amalgamate with the people and are for ever lost to Germany, but few trouble themselves about the self-evident remedy. But though the press—fearing the loss of subscribers, the generality of whom are guildsmen, and other privileged persons—is silent upon the subject, the abolitionists are up and doing, and making preparations for their grand meeting in the autumn. Two meetings have lately been held by them, one at Freiberg and the other at Gotha, at which it was resolved to agitate chiefly for the abolition of all restrictions upon labour and the right of settlement. The renewed activity of the National Association, which aims at the annexation of all German countries to Prussia, and is consequently a direct attack upon the princes, has called forth new measures of repression on the part of the Hanoverian and other Governments. I hear that the police have been making inquiries among the booksellers as to the persons who have subscribed to the weekly journal of the Association. Hitherto the Hanoverian authorities directed their attention only to those who were members, they will now make it criminal to read the proceedings. Instructions have been issued, it is said, to all the post-office authorities of the kingdom, to ascertain how many copies of the journal in question pass through the post-office, and to take note of the parties to whom they are addressed. The upshot will be the refusal of the post delivery, as the sale of the journal cannot be prohibited without a breach of the law. The exasperation against M. VON BORRIES has been still more increased by his elevation to the rank of "Count." It has been regarded as a defiance to the whole of Germany, that is to say, always, the rich and educated classes, and the outcry is terrible. The Minister, however, takes it very easy, dines at times with his royal master, attends meetings, and makes very loyal speeches, as if he were the most popular, instead of the most detested person in the kingdom, and indeed in all Germany. He seems to know perfectly well that the opponents of himself and his master are mere writers and gossips, that the great mass of the people, the common people, the thews and sinews, not the tongues of the country do not care a fig about what he says or does. In a late debate upon the civil list, a great number of arbitrary purchases of private property with State money were brought to light. One of these, a bold counterpart to the Deister mine affair, excited considerable sensation. It turned out that the Minister of Finance had expended the sum of 41,800 thalers for premises to serve as Government offices, when a similar sum had been obtained in a former session for the selfsame purpose. The excuse was, that the building had been let by the Government to the English Chargé d'Affaires, as it was found to be unsuited for the object at first required. M. VON BENNINGSEN opined that probably the premises

* *Stories of Rainbow and Lucky.* (Selling Lucky.) By JACOB ABBOTT. London: Sampson Low, Son & Co.

The Vicar of Wakefield. A Tale. By OLIVER GOLDSMITH. With Illustrations, by JOHN ABSOLON. London: Griffiths and Farren.

The Dawn of Love. By CALDER ELIOT. London: James Blackwood.

Kathie Brande; a Fireside History of a quiet Life. By HOLME LEE. London: Smith, Elder & Co.

Pass and Class. An Oxford Guide-book, through the Courses of Litteræ Humaniores, Mathematics, Natural Science, and Law, and Modern History. By MONTAGUE BURROWS, M.A. Oxford and London: J. H. and Jas. Parker.

The Divine Life in Man. By JAMES BALDWIN-BROWN, B.A. London: Ward & Co.

now purchased would be let to the good friend of M. BORRIES, viz., the French Chargé d'Affaires, so that next session the House of Representatives might be called upon to grant another sum of equal amount for other premises, to serve as Government offices, and so on *ad libitum*. Perhaps the Government is seeking to get all the house property, as well as all the landed property of the country in its hands.

The telegraph has already conveyed to your readers the intelligence of the intended meeting of the Princes of Germany at Baden Baden, as also of the interview which it is reported will there take place between the PRINCE REGENT of Prussia and LOUIS NAPOLEON. Should this interview really occur, we may regard it as a confirmation of the truth of the statement published by the Dusseldorfer journal. During the week, letters from Berlin positively declared that the interview sought for by the French EMPEROR had been declined, and we had long accounts of the endeavours of Prince GORTSCHAKOFF to oust M. VON SCHLEINITZ from the Foreign-office, and to put M. BISMARCK in his place. The mists which hung around the intrigues of the Feudal party and the diplomacy of the Russians are beginning to clear off. The rumour goes, that it was the aim of the Feudalists and Russia to induce Prussia to join the French-Russian alliance, and that for her adhesion a great extension of territory in Germany was offered, and further the prospect of an eventual annexation of the Duchy of Holstein. The system of annexation was also to be carried out in Germany, upon the condition, of course, that France should be put again into possession of her "natural" Rhine frontier, and that Russia should receive the lion's share of the lands now owned by the "sick man." To gain over the PRINCE REGENT to his policy, the Emperor NAPOLEON ardently desired an interview; but the attempt failed; the Prince decidedly refused to listen to any proposals as regards either alliance or interview. Prussia declared she would never seek an extension of territory in Germany by a one-sided alliance with a foreign power, nor would she ever consent to the surrender of a portion of German territory to obtain acquisitions in other countries. The interview with NAPOLEON was declined, and the Prince hastened from Berlin to avoid meeting the Grand Duke NICHOLAS, who was on his way there; so that the interview, which took place in passing, had the appearance of a casual encounter. Such was the report which, true or false, was intended as a hint to the Hanoverian Court and a reply to the speech of M. VON BORRIES, or, as we must for the future designate him, Count VON BORRIES. The Federal Diet is occupied with the Wurzburg proposal respecting the introduction of equal weights and measures into all countries of the Confederation.

The Austrian Council of the Empire has given proofs of more independence than was anticipated. The Government proposed that the discussion of the budget should take place in full council. The proposal was rejected. It was then proposed to form a committee of seven persons to discuss the preliminaries; but a counter-amendment to elect 21 members for the committee was adopted by 42 to 14 votes. The foremost speaker was the Magyar Count, MAZ-LATH, who, apologising for not being quite master of the German tongue, said, that "the publication of the transactions, to which the Government was opposed, would fulfil the ardent wish and very reasonable demand of the people. In their deliberations upon the budget, it would be their duty to examine not only the figures, but the objects of the disbursements. No Government was expensive but that which ruled over malcontents—the cheapest was that which produced the greatest number of contented subjects." The freedom of speech in these first transactions has caused considerable and very agreeable surprise.

RECORD OF THE WEEK.

HOME AND COLONIAL.

There is news from Australia, dated Sydney, April 25, that another rich goldfield has been discovered near Twofold Bay. On account of a native rebellion in New Zealand, troops have been despatched from Melbourne, Sydney, and Hobart Town. 210,000 ounces of gold have been shipped during the month.

Among the north country vessels that are supposed to have perished during the late gales with their crews is the *Star of North Shields*. She sailed for Holland some days before the Whit Monday storm, and has not since been heard of. She had eight hands on board. The owners had given up all hopes of her on Saturday. There is a report of the loss of a vessel bound from the Tyne to Holland, which, besides the crew, had the master's wife and four children on board; but it is to be hoped that the rumour is not true. Five of the bodies of the unfortunate seamen lost in the *Jane Green* near Hartlepool have been picked up and decently interred. The ships stranded at Redcar during the storm have been got off without any very serious damage.

The Marquis of Breadalbane has relinquished, for the use of Her Majesty, the apartments in Holyrood Palace, which his lordship and predecessors have held for many years. The rooms are on the south side of the Palace, and in immediate connexion with those of Her Majesty. The Dukes of Hamilton and Argyll are now the only noblemen possessing apartments in Holyrood. Her Royal Highness the Duchess of Kent has rented Lauriston Castle, near Edinburgh, for the summer months. Her Royal Highness and suite are expected to take possession shortly.

Colonel T. W. Hamilton, C.B., of the Grenadier Guards, is about to be attached provisionally to the legation at Berlin, as military commissioner at the head-quarters of the Prussian army.

Her Majesty has been graciously pleased to permit the Koh-i-noor diamond, which has been re-cut since the Exhibition of 1851, to be exhibited at the South Kensington Museum, in aid of the fund for building the Female School of Art. A large collection of ancient and modern jewellery will also be lent on that occasion. Tickets are obtainable at the Museum, and at Mr. Mitchell's, Old Bond Street.

The amount of duties received at the port of Bristol for the month ending the 31st May, was £113,330 12s., being more than was paid by all the other ports of the Bristol Channel, Gloucester included.

On Thursday morning last, at eight o'clock, police constable Baker, of Willesden, succeeded, in the disguise of a butcher, in apprehending William Hawkins, a native of Ivinghoe (who was at the time working on the underground railway in London), on a charge of being implicated in the Beechwood murder. The prisoner is supposed to be the man who was seen by Cook and Burgess with the two other men at the time of the murder.

The ceremony of enthroning the Right Rev. Joseph Cotton Wigram, D.D., the newly consecrated Bishop of Rochester, was performed in the cathedral of his diocese yesterday afternoon, in the presence of a large number of the clergy and laity; the choir, and a portion of the nave, being crowded.

On Tuesday, a deputation, consisting of 150 gentlemen, waited upon Lord Palmerston, at Cambridge House, in support of the provision for a religious census, proposed in the Bill brought in by the Government, as being preferable to any return to the fallacious test of 1851.

On Tuesday night a public meeting was held in Freemasons' Hall, Great Queen Street, in opposition to the provision in the Bill now before Parliament for taking a census of the population of England and Wales, next year, by which every householder is to be required to make a return of the "religious profession" of every person abiding in his house.

On Monday evening last a young woman, named Lilla Nelthorpe, residing in Windsor-place, Hull, fell asleep whilst sitting in a chair placed before the fire. It is supposed that being too near the grate her crinoline and dress became ignited, for when discovered, about half-past seven o'clock on Tuesday morning, she was almost burnt to a cinder. Medical aid was at once called in, but scarcely any relief could be given to the poor girl's sufferings. She was removed to the infirmary, where she died in the afternoon.

On Tuesday, at the Westminster Police Court, a volunteer obtained a summons against the toll-taker of the Vauxhall-bridge, for refusing to allow him to pass without paying the toll. The words of the Act bearing upon the case were "for any soldiers, or for any volunteers upon march or duty." And Mr. Paynter, the magistrate, had no doubt the applicant was exempt.

On Wednesday at noon, one of an extensive block of superior five story new houses, just completed for occupation in Portsdown-road, Maida-hill, was discovered to be on fire in the basement, whilst the workmen, who were employed to complete some adjoining houses, were at dinner. Information was immediately forwarded, and the parish engine was quickly upon the spot, closely followed by the Baker-street, King-street, Grosvenor-square, and Wells-street engines of the London Fire Brigade. The flames, nevertheless, spread rapidly through the building, and before they could be subdued, and within an hour after the arrival of the engines, they had demolished the roof, which fell in with a terrific crash. Masses of burning embers were scattered over the houses running parallel, known as Lanark Villas, which seemed to be in imminent danger; but the fire was fortunately arrested before much damage was effected. The premises where the fire originated are said to be fully insured. The cause of the fire is yet unknown.

On Saturday and Sunday last, the trial trip of the Great Eastern took place preparatory to her first voyage across the Atlantic. The results of the trip have proved on the whole decidedly satisfactory.

The number of bankruptcies gazetted in the first five months of the present year was 418, being at the rate of 1,005 per annum. The average of the previous ten years was 1,090 per annum. In the London district 418 bankruptcies have been gazetted this year to the close of May; in the Liverpool, 18; in the Manchester, 22; in the Birmingham, 62; in the Leeds, 44; in the Bristol, 41; in the Exeter, 22; and in the Newcastle, 14.

It is said that the French Insurance Offices intend presenting a petition to the Emperor, praying that a law may be passed to prohibit the sale of matches made with white phosphorus, and to allow none but those made of amorphous phosphorus to be made for the future. Official returns show that the average annual number of accidental fires in France was about 2,200 up to 1838, before friction matches came into use. In 1844 the number had risen to 4,000, which has constantly increased till in 1857 there were 10,000 fires. These figures show that it is most desirable to provide some means for preventing such a destruction of property.

The *Madras Crescent*, the organ of the high-caste natives of the Presidency, condemns the publication of Sir Charles Trevelyan's *Minute* as dangerous, not in exciting revolt among the natives, but in increasing race hatred between Europeans and natives. The writer says:—"The people of this Presidency are too fond of peace and quietness to break out into rebellion on account of a little extra taxation; but there are such things as passive resistance and secret combination, in which the people are not novices, and it is not very safe to raise and spread discontent even among a population peaceably disposed."

A great meeting was held at Dorchester, on Monday last, of the Bath and West of England Society for the encouragement of agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce.

CORPORATION REVENUE.—The section which stands next to rents as to the magnitude of its totals, is duties; which gives a general total during ten years of £817,001 4s. 0½d.; of this the 4d. Coal Duty produced £675,001 14s. 6d.; the Corn Metage, £120,790 8s. 10½d.; and the Fruit Metage, £10,806 1s. 1d.; the 4d. Coal Duty averages £70,000 a-year; the Corn Metage, £12,000; and the Fruit, £1,000. Next in order of importance is the income from markets—an income which is not all profit, but doomed to be reduced by heavy annual outgoings. The total of the markets during ten years is £203,175 4s. 10½d.; of this sum, Lendenhall has contributed £27,700 Newgate, £43,000; Farringdon, £10,800; Smithfield, £48,000; the New Metropolitan, £28,192; and Billingsgate, £42,973. Street tolls have yielded nothing since 1854, but in the four years of their continuance which come into this decade, their produce was as follows:—1850, £5,710; 1851, £5,810; 1852, £5,810; 1853, £5,810; 1854, £5,810. Thus the City relinquished an income of nearly £5,000 a-year, equal to the whole produce of Billingsgate Market, or one twelfth of the 4d. coal tax. Perhaps the great brewers and distillers and proprietors of mills round London save the whole of their proportion of the coal tax in their entire immunity from tolls in the City. Justiciary Fees produced in ten years, £12,219; Interest on Investments, £24,000; Sheriff's Fines, £2,400; Brokers' Rents, £17,000; Casual Receipts, including income-tax deducted, surplus profits of the Chamberlain's Office, and the office of Comptroller, £30,711; the Sale of Old Materials of Giltspur Street Compter is entered as "extraordinary" income, £2,893 15s. but the sale of Old Stores at Teddington, £1,112; and Sale of "Maria Wood," £630 15s., are entered as "ordinary," though it would be hard to class the latter with any ordinary event of the City Exchequer, for "Maria Wood" cannot be sold "once a year," and such a commercial divorcement should be extraordinary, if anything is.—*City Press.*

FOREIGN.

General Letizia, on his return from Naples, capitulated on the 6th with Garibaldi.

From Turin, June 9th, we learn that General Garibaldi has formed his Government. He has found 24,000,000f. in the treasury and caisses de dépôt.

According to the convention concluded on the 6th, the Neapolitans have evacuated, with all military honours, the whole town of Palermo, with the exception of the fort of Castellamare, and have withdrawn to embark.

The damage done by the bombardment is immense. The treasury is destroyed. The Neapolitans have committed atrocities. The burnt bodies of women and children have been found in the streets.

Letters from Rome, to the 5th inst., state that fresh bands were menacing the frontiers, to which General Lamoricière had sent more troops.

From Genoa, June 10th, we learn that the evacuation of Italy by the French troops is completed.

The *Wiener Zeitung*, of June 9th, contains a decree, ordering that the Stadtholdership of Hungary shall come into effect on the 1st of July next, at which period the five existing departments of the Central Government, which were intrusted with the administration of Hungary, will be abolished. Another decree suspends the district authorities of Moravia, and the provincial Government of Troppau. Silesia is to be subordinate to the Stadtholdership of Moravia, but the provincial status of Silesia, with a separate provincial representation, will be maintained.

Advices from Vera Cruz are to the 16th ult. The civil war and the disorganised state of affairs continued in Mexico. The writer states that the frigate Wyoming had been ordered to Lima to sustain the claims of Minister Clay against the Peruvian Government on behalf of the injured American citizens.

NAPLES, June 10.—Count Aquila, uncle of the King, strongly insists that an Italian policy and liberal institutions should be carried out, and hopes that this policy will be agreed to by the King.

From Turin, June 12, we learn that the Court of the Tuileries does not wish to undertake any mediation between the King of Naples and the Sicilian revolutionary party, unless in concert with England and the other great Powers.

The King of Sardinia on the 12th sanctioned the law approving the cession of Savoy and Nice to France. Official possession of these provinces will be taken on Thursday next.

Prince Gortschakoff has addressed to the Russian legations abroad, a circular on Russian policy and the Christians in the East.

From Turin, June 12th, the intelligence is, that the King of Naples is ready to grant a liberal constitution on the broadest basis to Sicily, to be also applied to the whole kingdom.

Garibaldi being triumphant, Count Cavour expresses a hope that France will not in any way interfere in the affairs of Sicily. He reminds the French Cabinet that the principle of non-intervention in Italy, as contained in the celebrated note of Lord John Russell, has been officially accepted by the French Government.

The Marquis Forreara, Marquis Rocaforte, and Count Manzoni, Sicilian emigrés, have gone to Palermo.

From Naples, the same date, it is officially stated that two steamers, having on board troops and ammunition, have been captured by Neapolitan ships of war.

Paris, June 13th. The *Moniteur* announces that the Senate has unanimously adopted the *Senatus Consulto* relative to the annexation of Savoy and Nice. The French laws and constitution will come into operation on the 1st January, 1861.

Constantinople, June 6th. Sir Henry Bulwer has firmly pointed out to the Porte the necessity of repressing abuses, and said that upon such repression would depend the support of England. The Sultan has favourably received these representations, and has sent his portrait to the Ambassador.

By the arrival of the Australian mail we have received advices from Melbourne to the 24th and New Zealand to the 14th April. The intelligence from New Zealand is important. An action had taken place between the natives and the English forces and volunteers, in which seventeen chiefs were killed, and another engagement was expected on the 14th April.

ENTERTAINMENTS.

THE "Barbieri" was repeated on Tuesday at HER MAJESTY'S THEATRE, for the purpose of introducing to the English public Signor Ciampi, a comic baritone singer, who has acquired a great reputation in his native country. Signor Ciampi possesses a powerful voice, of rich quality and extensive compass. He has a great fund of comic humour, and keeps the audience in a constant state of merriment. The character of *Rosina's* jealous guardian is perfectly rendered by Signor Ciampi. Signor Gassier on this occasion replaced Signor Everardi in the character of the Jovial Barber, and acted throughout with equal energy and spirit. The vocalisation of Madame Borghi-Mamo and Signor Belart was as fine and charming as on any former occasion. The orchestra and the choruses were excellent throughout.

Owing to a severe domestic affliction, the representations of Madame Grisi and Signor Mario have, for a brief period, been suspended at the ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA. On Saturday last "Don Giovanni," the masterpiece of Mozart, which had been advertised, was replaced by "Fidelio," also the masterpiece of Beethoven. The splendid performance of Madame Csillag, as the *Heroine*, excited to the utmost the enthusiasm of a very crowded audience, among whom were Her Majesty the Queen, His Royal Highness the Prince Consort, and His Majesty the King of the Belgians. The grand overture to "Leonora" was played in capital style, and demanded with acclamations.

The arrangements at the CRYSTAL PALACE for the Great French Musical Festival of the Orphéonistes rapidly approach completion. Mons. Delaporte, and his little army of inspectors, have returned from their tours through the provinces of France, and the numbers from each society who will take part in the Festival are now exactly reported. Special arrangements by the various lines of communication between London and Paris have been entered into for the conveyance of the performers, who will reach London by Sunday, the 24th inst. A rehearsal will take place at the Crystal Palace very early on the following morning (Monday, the 25th June), after which (at twelve o'clock) the doors of the Palace will be opened to the public, and the performance of the first day of the Festival commence at three o'clock. Included in the selection of music for the first day will be found the choruses of the "Enfants de Paris," by Adolphe Adam; the "Veni Creator" of Besozzi; the "Retraite" of Laurent de Bille; the "Depart du Chasseur" of Mendelssohn, &c., &c., (popularly known in England as the hunter's farewell) concluding the first part with the celebrated "Septuor" in the duel scene of Meyerbeer's "Huguenots," which, sung by thousands of voices and accompanied by military music, produced the most marked enthusiasm when performed in Paris at the Palais de l'Industrie in March last year, and it is expected will be equally successful on the present occasion. In addition to the preceding choruses, selections of military music will be interspersed with them, and two choruses expressly written for this festival by M. J. F. Vaudin, to which music has been respectively composed by M.M. Halévy and Ambroise Thomas, the celebrated French composers, will be performed for the first time. These are entitled "France! France!" and "La Nouvelle Alliance." In compliment to this unprecedented assemblage of foreign visitors the Great Orchestra will be appropriately decked with groups of French flags and appropriate emblems, and during the stay of the Orphéonistes in England, the tricolour will wave from the lofty flag-staffs in the front of the Palace and the Grounds. The tickets for this interesting international Festival are issued in sets for the three days, at 12s. 6d. the set, or by single day ticket, which must be purchased beforehand, 5s. The price of admission will afterwards be raised. The reserved seats, at the same price, will be arranged in blocks, as at the Handel Festival, and the same arrangements for the comfort of visitors be carried out by stewards, as in 1857 and 1859. Invitations have been issued to the provincial press to report this great Festival, which have been responded to in the heartiest spirit, nearly 300 country journals having already expressed their intention to send special reporters to Sydenham for the occasion. The leading Northern Railway Companies have agreed to consider periodical tickets as available, from the 23rd to 29th of June; and on the Southern and other lines, within a day's excursion, Special Excursion Trains will be run.

The high estimation in which the ENGLISH GLEE AND MADRIGAL UNION is held, was proved on Wednesday by the large audience in the concert room in Messrs. Colliard and Collard's pianoforte establishment, Grosvenor Street, Grosvenor Square. The vocalists were Miss Banks, Mr. Foster, Mr. Lockey, Mr. Montem Smith, Mr. Winn, and Mr. Lewis Thomas. Mrs. Lockey was prevented

from giving her assistance, owing to her continued indisposition. The opening madrigal, "Lady, see on every Side," was beautifully rendered, as was also Horsley's glee for five voices, "Now the Storms begin to Lower." Miss Banks was heard to great advantage in Sir Henry Bishop's glee, "When wearied Wretches sink to Sleep," "To other day, as I sat in the Sycamore Shade," Goss's glee for four voices, and "When winds breathe soft along the deep." Webb's glee for five voices, were well sung and highly appreciated. Shakespeare's "Ye Spotted Snakes," and "I Know a Maiden," were also given with considerable effect. The admirable instrumentation of Signor Piatti added greatly to the attractions of the concert, which was throughout highly agreeable and satisfactory.

Madame Paez gave, on Tuesday, a musical entertainment at the same elegant Pianoforte Concert Rooms, recently fitted up by Messrs. Collard. The weather was unpropitious, but, notwithstanding the rainy condition of the atmosphere, the attendance was large, including many of the fashionable public. Madame Paez, who has a charming voice, executed with great brilliancy a cavatina from "Ernani," and Donizetti's "Cavatina de Torquato Tasso." She also displayed musical talent of a high order in the duo "Mira la bianca Luna," with M. Depret, an accomplished tenor, who sang Darcier's chansonnette comique, "Le Beau Nicolas," in a style which excited a good deal of merriment among the fairer portion of the audience. Henri Ketten, a youth of not more than eleven or twelve years of age, charmed the company by his pianoforte performance of one of Mendelssohn's solos, and a fantasia impromptu, by Chopin. He exercised complete mastery over the instrument, and, indeed, played with so much grace and vigour as to astonish his admirers. Herr Joseph Hermanns gave with considerable ease and finish an aria from "The Merry Wives of Windsor." M. Rene Douay also afforded the company a treat by his performances on the violoncello. The concert passed off very agreeably, affording, as it must have done, the utmost gratification and enjoyment to all who were engaged in it.

THE daylight exhibition of flowers in the NEW FLORAL HALL commenced on Wednesday, and it fully realized the hopes which had been entertained of its success and popularity. The unrivalled flower-show of the Crystal Palace was here seen on a small scale, and with a degree of elegance and taste not at all unworthy of its famous type at Sydenham. The elegant structure, so admirably adapted as it is for the rich and rare display of flowers of all hues and of every clime, will speedily become one of the most attractive resorts in the metropolis. Among the choice and delicate specimens of floral beauty in the hall must be mentioned the Rhododendrons, Azaleas, and Camellias, which are now in full flower. On the occasion of Her Majesty's visit on Tuesday, the Hall was very tastefully decorated, and it is gratifying to find that none of the flowers, as regards their freshness or perfume, were damaged by the gas-light and heat of the evening. The new Hall of glass stands well near the ever-famous Covent Garden Market, where for the future the visitor may behold the finest flowers, as well as the choicest fruits, which Nature, the "kindest mother still," can produce.

FEMALE SCHOOL OF ART AND DESIGN.—On Thursday, the prizes, consisting of books and two medals, were distributed at the Museum at Kensington. Mr. Redgrave, in the unavoidable absence of Lord Granville, presided, and opened the proceedings with a brief account of the object of the institution, and reported the unpleasant fact that the Government had withdrawn the five hundred a year, which it had allowed for house room for the institution. Mr. Redgrave then proceeded to call up the young ladies, thirty-five of whom received prizes of books, and two—Miss Anne Bartlett and Miss Isabella Pigott—received each the large medal. The Rev. Anthony Thorold, chairman of the committee of management, enlarged on art and its moral duties and religious aspects; and Mr. Westmacott made a very agreeable and light speech, full of a thorough appreciation of art and its objects. The theatre was crowded with ladies, and the whole affair passed off with much éclat and not without a due tribute to Miss Gann's zealous and efficient services to the institution. A soirée on an extensive scale is to be given on Thursday next, the 21st inst., at the Museum, in aid of a fund to find a home for the institution; when the Koh-i-noor and other magnificent diamonds, besides the usual attractions, are to be exhibited.

PARLIAMENT.

IN the House of Lords on Thursday night, Lord TEYNHAM moved resolutions to the following effect:—"That the House desiring the settlement of Parliamentary Reform, is willing carefully to consider the petitions which have been presented in favour of manhood suffrage and vote by ballot, as the broadest basis for the elective franchise; also that the House, hoping to be able to discern those who ought and ought not to have a vote, is, therefore, prepared to recommend such alterations in the criminal, vagrant and poor laws as shall appear necessary to cut off the register of voters all improper persons, and that in this way the House hopes to grant the spirit of the prayer of the petitions, not only without harm, but with great advantage to the common weal," and the motion was negatived. In the House of Commons, the adjourned debate on Mr. MACKINNON's amendment of the order for going into Committee on the Representation of the People Bill, to defer legislation upon the subject till the result of the census had been obtained, was the first order of the day upon the paper. Upon its being read, Sir J. FERGUSON rose to move that the debate be adjourned. He observed that his object was to endeavour to delay the discussion of

the English Bill until the Irish and Scotch Bills were considered *pari passu*, or the representation of the whole United Kingdom could be dealt with simultaneously. The motion was seconded by Colonel DICKSON. Sir G. GREY said, the moving an adjournment of the debate was a dilatory and obstructive course, merely in order to interpose a further obstacle to the progress of the Bill, and he hoped the House would not encourage the attempt. Lord J. MANNERS repelled the charge that the Opposition had been actuated by a desire to obstruct the Bill, by procrastination and delay. Sir T. COLEBROOKE spoke against the adjournment of the debate. Mr. LONGFIELD desired, he said, a Reform Bill that should deal with the entire representation of the United Kingdom. Mr. INGRAM hoped the Government would insist upon the £6 borough franchise, and upon its being a rental, and not a rating franchise. Mr. WALLINGTON hoped the Government would withdraw it. Mr. ALCOCK spoke strongly in favour of the Bill, which he was anxious to see passed. Mr. C. BRUCE contended that, by proceeding with the English Bill alone, a gross injustice would be inflicted on the people of Scotland. Mr. BAXTER declined to vote for the adjournment of the debate, the object of which he considered to be to obstruct the progress of the Bill. Mr. GEORGE complained of the reiteration of the charge of obstruction, which he denied. Mr. PEASE, from personal acquaintance with the working classes, observed that the remarks made in that House upon those classes, showed an absence of knowledge of their character. From the amount of intelligence they exhibited, he thought it was the duty of that House to confer upon them a share in the representation, and their admission to the franchise inspired him with no alarm whatever. Mr. STIRLING argued that Scotland was insufficiently represented, and that, if the English Bill passed alone, it would be impossible to repair the injustice. The LORD ADVOCATE defended the Bill, and especially the concession made to the working classes, ridiculing the idea that it would open the floodgates of democracy, as a delusion. Mr. WHITESIDE could not understand their reason for dropping two of the Bills and endeavouring to squeeze through the English Bill in the month of June. Mr. BRIGHT defended the Bill. Sir H. CAIRNS appealed to the House to rescue itself from its embarrassing position, and to the Government at once to withdraw the Bill. Lord PALMERSTON observed, that Sir H. CAIRNS had fallen into the error which he had imputed to Mr. BRIGHT;—his speech belonged to the Committee. He observed, if the other side should endeavour to defeat by delay a measure to the principle of which they had given their assent, they would pursue a course unworthy of a great political party. Mr. DISRAELI observed, that the speech of Lord PALMERSTON had been characterized by a total misconception of the business of the House. Lord J. RUSSELL, observing that the question was whether this motion was a real, substantial objection to proceeding with the Bill, or for the mere purpose of delay, briefly vindicated the course adopted by the Government. Upon a division, the motion of Sir J. FERGUSON for adjourning the debate was negatived by 269 to 248. Mr. COCHRANE moved that the House do adjourn. This motion was negatived by 267 to 222. The debate was then adjourned till Monday. Mr. CARDWELL moved that the order for the second reading of the Representation of the People (Ireland) Bill be discharged. The motion was opposed, but ultimately agreed to, and the Bill was withdrawn. The same course was taken with the Scotch Bill, and the remaining business having been disposed of, the House adjourned at five minutes past three o'clock. In the House of Lords, on Friday night, Lord STANHOPE moved for a copy or extract of the despatch from the Secretary for Foreign Affairs to regulate the diplomatic relations with the Court of Rome since the cessation of Her Majesty's legation at Florence, which was agreed to. The House went into committee on the Refreshment and Wine Licenses Bill, which, after a brief discussion, was passed without an amendment. In the House of Commons, on the subject of the Slave Trade, Lord J. RUSSELL said it was too true that the slave trade was carried on at Cuba, into which island from 30,000 to 40,000 slaves were introduced annually, in contempt and violation of the treaty between this country and Spain. Various causes impaired the means of putting down this trade, one of which was the state of the American law on the subject. Mr. BAILLIE, in moving for papers regarding the disarming of the natives of India, called attention to the proceedings of the Indian Government in relation to that measure, which, in his opinion, had been executed with unjustifiable severity. The motion was seconded by Col. SYKES. Sir C. WOOD offered no objection to the production of the papers. He defended the measure of disarming the natives, which was, he said, not one of punishment, but of prevention. The motion was agreed to. Mr. H. B. SHERIDAN obtained leave to bring in a Bill to enable cities, towns, and boroughs, of 30,000 inhabitants and upwards, to appoint stipendiary magistrates; and Mr. LYON a Bill to amend the law relating to the hiring of agricultural servants. The House was counted out shortly before nine o'clock.—In the House of Lords, on Monday, several Bills on the table were forwarded a stage. On the third reading of the Refreshment and Wine Licenses Bill being proposed by Earl GRANVILLE, Lord DENHAM said it was a most mischievous measure, calculated to damage the morals of the people, and he should, therefore, move that it be read a third time that day six months. The Earl of DONOUGHMORE seconded the motion. After a short discussion, in which Lord REDESDALE and Lord GRANVILLE took part, Lord DENHAM insisted on a division, which, upon counting, the tellers on both sides gave for the amendment 2; against, 36; majority for the third reading, 34. The Bill was then passed. Sir J. BARNARD's Act Repeal Bill was read a third time and passed, and their Lordships

then adjourned.—In the House of Commons, on Monday, after a lengthened discussion, the Bill for the Representation of the People was withdrawn. The Offences against the Person Bill was read a second time. The other orders of the day were then disposed of, and the House adjourned at half-past one o'clock.—In the House of Lords, on Tuesday, the Duchy of Cornwall Limitation of Actions Bill went through committee. The Union of Benefices Bill was re-committed, and several verbal alterations agreed on.—In the House of Commons, which sat at 12 o'clock, the House went into committee on the Annuity Tax Abolition (Edinburgh) Bill; clauses up to 13 were agreed to, and the sitting was suspended at 4 o'clock. At the evening sitting, Lord PALMERSTON, in answer to questions put to him by Mr. SHERIDAN respecting Sicily and Naples, said that British ships of war had been sent by the Admiralty to Messina, and other places in Sicily, and also to Naples, for the protection of British subjects. The barbarities that had been practised by the Governments of Rome and Naples were, he said, a disgrace to the age and to civilization, and when the Governments of those places applied to friendly Powers to check the revolutionary movements, they seemed to forget that they themselves were the cause of those revolts. Sir C. WOOD moved for leave to bring in a Bill to repeal so much of the 22nd and 23rd Victoria as enables the Secretary of State for India to raise men for Her Majesty's local European forces in India. The debate upon the motion was adjourned to Thursday week. Mr. FENWICK obtained leave to bring in a Bill for the abolition of passing tolls. The London Corporation Reform Bill was postponed to Tuesday three weeks.—In the Commons on Wednesday, the House went into committee on the Mines Regulation Bill. On clause 1, providing that no child under twelve years old shall be employed in mines, except according to the terms of clause 2, which provides that boys between ten and twelve may be so employed, upon the production of a certificate that they can read and write, Mr. PAGET objected that such children were too young for the work, and moved to insert "thirteen" in the place of "twelve" years. Mr. CLIVE opposed the amendment, which, after a long discussion, was negatived by 187 to 71—majority 107. On the question that the clause should stand part of the Bill, Mr. LIDDELL, upon the ground that it proposed to apply to mining a restriction which was enforced in the case of no other industrial interest, moved as an amendment that the clause should be struck out. Lord A. V. TEMPEST seconded the amendment. On a division, the amendment was negatived by 180 to 91—majority 89; and the clause was then agreed to. On the second clause, Mr. KINNAIRD moved an amendment to limit the labours of boys between ten and twelve years old to eight hours a day. After considerable discussion, the committee divided, and rejected the amendment by 146 to 77—majority 69. The Chairman then reported progress, leaving the clause still undisposed of. The Local Board of Health &c. Bill, was read a second time, as were also the Local Government Supplemental Bill, and the Friendly Societies Act Amendment Bill. Sir J. ELPHINSTONE obtained leave to bring in a bill for testing anchors and chain cables in the merchant service. The House rose at a few minutes before six.

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